

EDUCATION IN HUNGARY

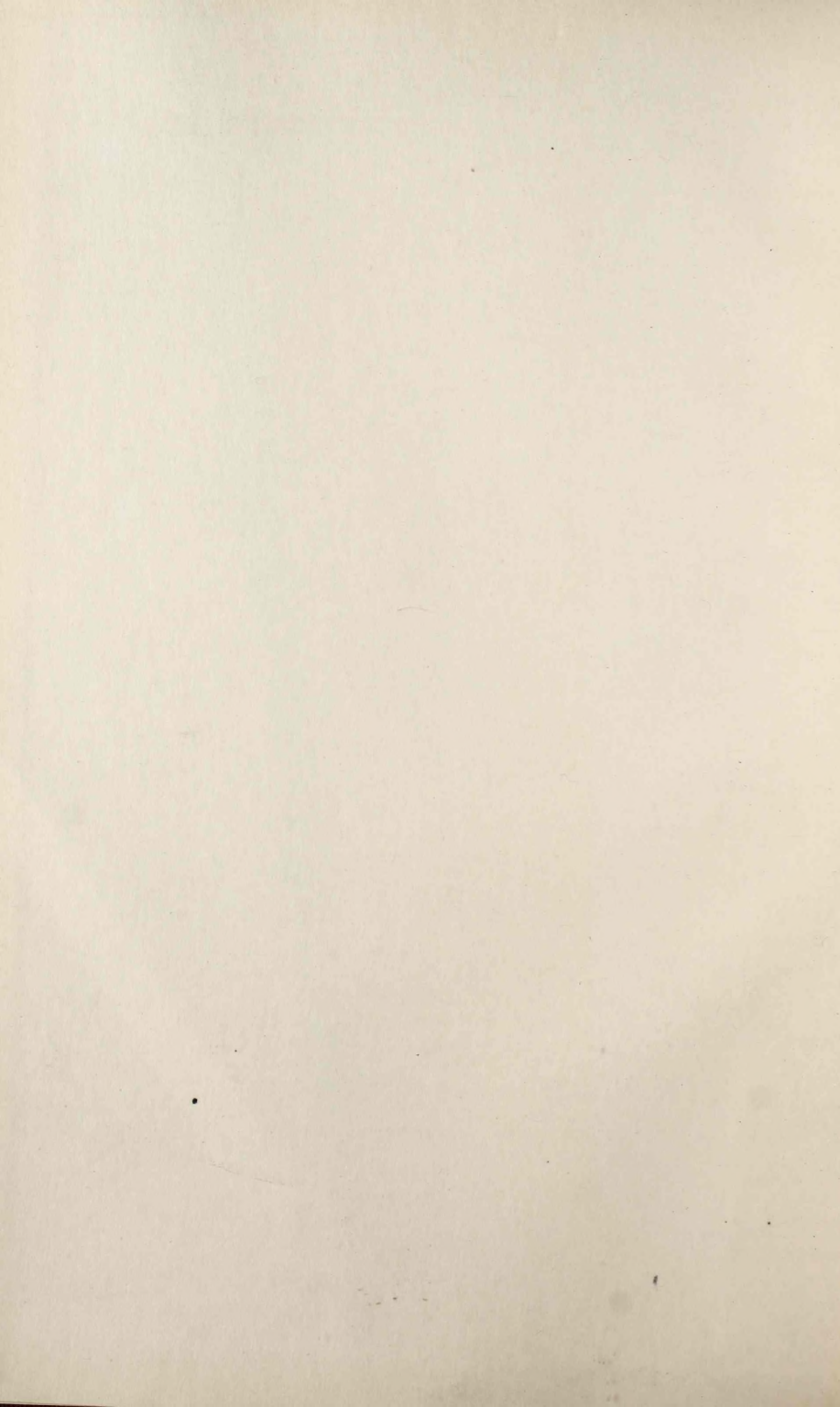
JULIUS KORNIS



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EDUCATION IN HUNGARY



**The International Institute
of Teachers College, Columbia University**

The INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE of Teachers College, Columbia University, was established in 1923 to carry out the following objects: (1) to give special assistance and guidance to the increasing body of foreign students in Teachers College; (2) to conduct investigations into educational conditions, movements, and tendencies in foreign countries; (3) to make the results of such investigations available to students of education in the United States and elsewhere in the hope that such pooling of information will help to promote and advance the cause of education.

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EDUCATION IN HUNGARY

BY

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PREFACE

The International Institute is pleased to make available for the first time in English a full account of the history and present system of Hungarian education from the vivid and scholarly pen of Professor Kornis. Long connected with the administration of Hungarian education, Professor Kornis is now the recognized historian of Hungarian educational affairs.

This history is of significance to Western students for a variety of reasons. Few have been familiar with the development of Hungarian education, and, consequently, few have been conscious that this evolution possesses all the richness of the history of education of Western European peoples. In some respects it parallels the development of education of more Western countries. In some respects it forms but a part of the development of the West.

Developments in the monastic cathedral burgher school and early university paralleled similar developments farther west; that the Renaissance and Reformation affected Hungary as intimately as they affected the Germanic countries of central Europe was less to be expected. That Comenius worked, taught, and wrote in Hungary as well as in Bohemia is well known, but that the *Ratio Educationis* of 1777 is one of the outstanding documents of the historic development of education is not so generally known. Professor Kornis has performed a real service in making known the significance of this document. But for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in general, education follows the course of government in Hungary as well as elsewhere. Progressive when government is progressive, revolutionary with reactionary government, the history of education in Hungary forms an interesting and instructive parallel to government, politics, and thought life in general. Reaction followed too soon after the *Ratio* of 1777 to allow its ideas of universal instruction, free instruction, practical instruction to become valid, or, in fact, similar ideas of later reform movements. Reaction again follows after the Napoleonic period and after the revolution of the

middle of the century. From the nineteenth century this close relationship of education to social and political reform or reaction constitutes the chief value of the historical analysis. The more detailed account of the present system has its value in that such information is not available in English elsewhere. While the status of education and the plan of educational and political leaders since the Great War are entitled to a clearer and more definite meaning than they have had hitherto, American students and the International Institute owe a debt of gratitude to Professor Kornis for this scholarly treatise.

PAUL MONROE, *Director,*
International Institute
of Teachers College
Columbia University

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EDUCATION IN HUNGARY

INTRODUCTION

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF HUNGARIAN EDUCATION

THE MIDDLE AGES AND THE RENAISSANCE

In Hungary schools were first established at the time when, around 1000, the Hungarian nation embraced the Christian faith and St. Stephen made Hungary a kingdom. Beginning with the eleventh century, there were in Hungary, as in the West, monastic, cathedral, and cloistral schools. First the Benedictines, then later the Cistercians, the Premonstratensians, the Augustinians, the Franciscans, and the Dominicans transplanted the European school system into their Hungarian convents; the cathedral and cloistral priests also maintained schools after the Western style, in which they taught the seven liberal arts (*artes liberales*)—grammar, dialectics, rhetoric, music, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy. During the thirteenth century city schools arose. Historical research shows 275 city and village schools up to the year 1541. With the development of Hungarian social life the necessity for schools of higher learning came to the fore, and after the style of the University of Bologna, the University of Pécs was founded in 1567, which in point of time is the second university in central Europe after the University of Prague, founded in 1384. There are historical traces of a university in Ó Buda also (1389).

The frequent contacts with Italy made during the reign of the Anjou kings in the fourteenth century exercised a great influence upon the development of Hungarian culture. Among European countries the effect of Italian humanism made its first appearance in Hungary. Many young Hungarians studied in the universities at Padua and Bologna. The leading men of the Italian

Renaissance were in constant and direct touch with Hungarian church dignitaries and lords. Poggio dedicated two of his works to John Hunyady, governor of the nation and defender of Christianity against the Turks. King Matthias is an extraordinary representative of the Italian Renaissance; he surrounded himself with humanist scholars, erected magnificent palaces, and collected a wonderful library. His example was followed by Hungarian churchmen who studied especially in Italy; their courts became the home of humanistic culture. They were in constant communication with Italian humanists, who came to Hungary in great numbers. The famous Georgios Trapezuntios and Joannes Argyropulos dedicated certain of their works to Archbishop John Vitéz. One of the greatest Latin poets of the Renaissance, the Hungarian Janus Pannonius, was Bishop of Pécs. Italian Platonism found enthusiastic followers in King Matthias and his court.

Besides studying in the universities of Italy, Hungarian students studied at Crakow and Vienna, especially. Their number in the university at Vienna during the fourteenth century was so great that they were enabled to organize themselves into a special student body called the *Natio Hungarica*. King Matthias in 1467 organized a university of four faculties (*studium generale*) at Pozsony, in which the very ablest scholars were employed to teach, among them the German astronomer, Joannes Regiomontanus, known throughout Europe as the inventor of many astronomical instruments and the one who introduced tangents into trigonometry and whom Matthias had previously called to Buda to arrange the Greek manuscripts that he had obtained after the capture of Constantinople. However, this *Academia Istropolitana* at Pozsony, through which Hungary was linked to European learning, died out toward the close of Matthias' reign. But Italian humanism had struck its roots too deep into Hungary to disappear at once with the king's death. In 1497 there was founded the *Danubian Society of Scholars*, which, under the leadership of John Vitéz the Younger, united the humanists of Vienna and Buda. The rule of weak kings, the advance of the Turks, and the tragedy of Mohács (1526) soon put an end to the renaissance of Hungarian culture. In the succeeding century and a half the finest of the nation's youth fell upon the battlefield in the struggle against the Turks.

THE REFORMATION PERIOD

In Hungary, as in Europe generally, the Reformation gave a great impetus to the development of education. Protestantism spread rapidly in Hungary, too. At first it was the German cities of Hungary that adopted the new faith, and the Lutheran form of the new faith; but very soon Magyars, particularly the pure stock living beyond the Tisza, embraced the faith of John Calvin in enormous numbers. Protestant cities and Protestant magnates seemed to vie with one another in the founding of schools. Their system and spirit were modelled on those of the Protestant schools of Germany. This fact is readily understood, since at about this time Hungarian students were studying in great numbers at German universities and other institutions of higher learning (Wittenberg, Basel, Heidelberg, Strassburg, Halle, etc.). In the sixteenth century more than a thousand Hungarians attended the University of Wittenberg. It is natural, therefore, that from the academic centres of German Protestantism they should have brought with them the academic and disciplinarian systems of the German schools, especially the spirit of the system of Sturm. In the organization and rules of contemporary Protestant Hungarian schools we can at once discover the German influence. The effect of this was heightened, moreover, by the fact that many German teachers found employment in Hungarian schools.

The cultural ideal of German Protestant humanism readily became common in the Latin schools of Hungary. Religion and the classics constituted the curriculum in the main. Melancthon strongly propagated his humanistic tendency, not only through personal contact with Hungarian students, but also through his textbooks. His Latin and Greek grammar and rhetoric were widely used as textbooks in Hungary. In logic the dialectics of Sturm was used. Of the classics, Hungarian schools read the Letters and Orations of Cicero (the edition of Sturm), especially his *Pro Lege Manilia*, *Pro Archia Poeta*, and his *Pro Sex. Roscio Amerino*. Of his philosophical works, the *De Officiis* was used. We frequently find among the Latin readings such writers as Vergil, Terence, Cato, and Erasmus. As Protestantism returned to the Greek text of the Scriptures, the teaching of Greek found a place, after the German style, in the curriculum of Hungarian

Protestant schools (Aesop, Lucian, Isocrates, Hesiod, Homer, and the Greek text of the New Testament).

THE COUNTER-REFORMATION—THE JESUITS AND PIARISTS

Protestant schools, without a doubt, aided in a great measure the spread and development of the Reformation. The Catholic schools, on the other hand, for a time almost entirely receded into the background. The great church estates came under the yoke of the Turks; the monasteries and bishoprics maintaining schools were destroyed; the number of the priests greatly decreased; and the lower clergy were unschooled. Thus a large proportion of the Catholic schools were ruined. It was only several decades after the battle of Mohács that Catholics awakened, and, seeing the success of Protestant schools, realized the far-reaching significance of education. The laws of 1548, 1550, and 1560 thus repeatedly declared that the revenues of abandoned monasteries and bishoprics should be appropriated for the founding of schools, the care of teachers, and the education of priests. Catholic churchmen clearly saw that the chief strength of the new faith lay in its well-organized schools. They consequently availed themselves of the same weapon, organizing new schools and reviving old ones. It was in this way, and with the backing of the Catholic royal powers, that they protected themselves against the new faith and began the Counter-Reformation.

This was set afoot by Nicholas Oláh, Archbishop of Esztergom (1493-1568), who grew up in the classical atmosphere of the humanists in the early part of the sixteenth century and who even later kept in close touch with humanists and corresponded with Erasmus. It is comprehensible, therefore, why in the Gymnasium founded by him at Nagyszombat in 1554 the study of classical writers (Vergil, Horace, Ovid, Terence, Cicero, Quintilian, Livy, Sallust, and Caesar) should have been so greatly emphasized. Since very many of the young men of noble birth were educated in the family circle, Oláh endeavoured to supplant the inferior private tutoring by organizing public education. The training of an educated clergy and a faithful Catholic intellectual class could be accomplished only by way of organized public schools and Gymnasiums. And, as the best Catholic educators in Europe at that time were the Jesuits, in 1561 he

entrusted the Gymnasium of Nagyszombat to them. The Jesuits immediately organized colleges and refectories throughout the country, particularly in such towns as already had Protestant schools (Pozsony, Sopron, Locs, Sárospatak, Kolozsvár, etc.) in order that they might be competitors. When, two centuries later (1773), this order was disbanded, it had one university, three academies, thirty-one Gymnasiums, and nine refectories in Hungary.

The educational system of the Jesuits in Hungary, as in the other countries of Europe, was governed by the *Ratio Studiorum* (1599). Their Gymnasium consisted of three classes of grammar, one of humanities, and one of rhetoric. This was followed in the higher institutions by a three-year course in philosophy. Elementary education was not embraced by them; where an elementary course preparatory to the Gymnasium was included, this was conducted by a lay teacher. In the Gymnasium, apart from religion, Latin was taught almost exclusively, especially with an emphasis on formal rhetoric. The speaking and writing of good Latin was the chief task of instruction. Of the classical writers, therefore, Cicero stood in the foreground. Selections were read from Caesar, Sallust, Livy, and Curtius; of the poets, from Vergil, Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius. Apart from Latin, the rudiments of mathematics were taught and, beginning with the eighteenth century, even biblical and ancient history. Hungarian history had no place in their educational system. The Greek tongue generally received little attention. An important method was the spirit of competition. The production of dramas by students also played an important part in their teaching.

In the latter part of the seventeenth century there rapidly spread in Hungary another order—that of the Piarists, devoted exclusively to education (*Scholae Piae*). There was a time when the Piarists taught in nearly thirty Gymnasiums and also engaged in elementary education. They laid greater stress upon the teaching of practical subjects than did the Jesuits. They even entered into professional training. In the middle of the eighteenth century they were to be found in the first agricultural school, the *Collegium Oeconomicum* of Szempe, teaching book-keeping and economics.

A decisive moment in the development of Hungarian education

was the great endowment made in 1653 by Peter Pázmány, Archbishop of Esztergom and leader of the Counter-Reformation, for the establishment at Nagyszombat of a university under the control of Jesuits. Ferdinand II invested the university with the same privileges as were enjoyed by the German universities. To the Faculties of Theology and Philosophy endowed by Pázmány there was added a Faculty of Law (in 1667), mainly through the efforts of Prelates Lósy and Lippay. Maria Theresa completed the university in 1769 by the addition of a Faculty of Medicine and in 1777 removed it from Nagyszombat to Buda, the capital of the country; from there Joseph II transferred it to Pest (in 1784). After the plan of the University of Nagyszombat another university was established in 1657 at Kassa, again under the control of Jesuits; but this became extinct in 1773.

COMENIUS AND APÁCZAI

Protestants also had institutions of higher learning. In 1531 a Protestant college was established at Sárospatak, another at Kolozsvár in 1581, and again another at Debrecen in 1588. Gabriel Bethlen, prince of Transylvania, in 1629 founded a college at Gyulafehérvár, to which he invited as professors Martin Opitz, John Henrik Alsted, Henrik Bisterfeld, and Louis Piscater, all from Germany. The Lutherans founded a college at Eperjes in 1667. All these institutions also taught theology.

Although Protestant schools were often hindered in their work by the innumerable anti-Protestant edicts and persecutions by the Catholic sovereigns, they nevertheless preserved their vitality for Hungarian culture even amidst persecutions and religious wars. The educational system of several larger Protestant schools served as a model for their smaller Latin schools. The Lutherans had such model schools at Eperjes, Pozsony, and Sopron, while the Reformed Church had such schools at Sárospatak, Debrecen, and Nagyenyed. Each had its own peculiar individuality. The pivot of their educational program was Latin grammar and rhetoric; they also taught Greek and even Hebrew. Of the more practical subjects only the rudiments of arithmetic were taught at first, but later some of the schools paid more attention to geography and the natural sciences. Beginning with the eighteenth century world history, Hungarian history began to find a place in the curriculum.

The Moravian Comenius, who taught at Sárospatak for four years (1650-1654), had a significant influence on Hungarian Protestant schools. Under the title *Illustris Patakianae Scholae Idea* he developed plans for the reorganization of the school at Sárospatak. The three lower grades of this newly organized school opened in 1651; the higher grades, however, in which the pansophic educational theory of Comenius might have been realized, never came into being. It was here that among other things Comenius wrote his textbook, the *Orbis Sensualium Pictus*, in which he endeavoured to represent by pictures all those things which the scholar could not see in actuality. He inculcated into Hungarian minds his fundamental conception of national schools, that is, public schools using the mother tongue and ignoring the Latin language altogether. He urged the teaching of practical subjects in the schools. The Latin textbooks that he wrote were used in the Protestant schools of Hungary for a hundred years.

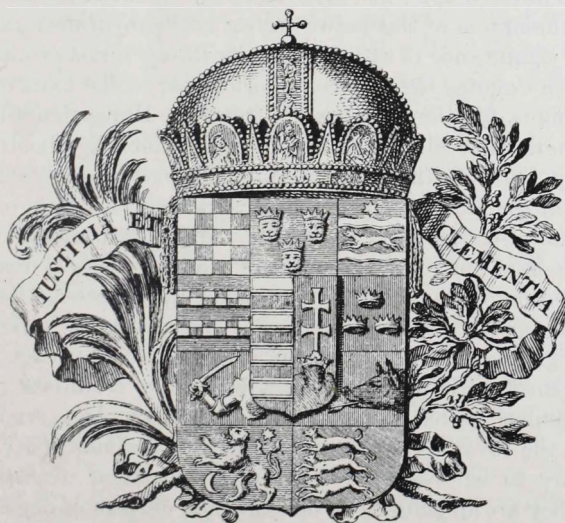
Contemporaneously with Comenius in the middle of the seventeenth century lived John Csere de Apáczai, a brilliant Hungarian scholar, who evolved plans for the reform of the educational system. He desired to elevate Hungarian culture by a better training of the younger generation, for he believed that culture was the principal source of the power of liberty and politics. He considered the number of the village schools for peasants too small. Education in the Gymnasium, he thought, revolved in a dry and spiritless way about mere words and not actualities. Grammar consumed all the energies of the student. Not only mathematics and physics, but even literature and history were lacking in Hungarian schools. He urged textbooks in the Hungarian rather than in the Latin language. Trained in the universities of Holland, Apáczai particularly lamented the complete absence of technical sciences in Hungary. One of the greatest shortcomings of the country's culture, he believed, was the lack of a complete university, on account of which Hungarian scholars were forced to study abroad. In the interests of a university, Apáczai in 1658 sent a memorandum to Prince Bercsényi and presented detailed plans for a complete university. It was Apáczai who first sketched a logical Hungarian educational system that was to cover the whole range from the grade school to the university.

THE FIRST STATE CODE OF HUNGARIAN EDUCATION: THE RATIO
EDUCATIONIS OF 1777

The systematization of Hungarian education on the basis of a definite theory, however, was delayed by the continual Turkish wars and national uprisings and did not receive consideration until the second half of the eighteenth century.

Already at the opening of the eighteenth century the idea appeared that the state should exercise influence upon the direction of public education. The laws of 1715 and 1723 expressed this idea by declaring the royal right of supervision over schools. This right of supervision in practice, however, did not influence the development of schools very profoundly until the spirit of the age and necessity had brought about the actual realization of the principle of state education. The state reorganization of education, above all, may be attributed to the great pedagogical enthusiasm of the eighteenth century, which so staunchly believed in the power of education. The enlightened absolutism of Maria Theresa and Joseph II, like that of Frederick the Great and the Russian Empress Catherine, desired to produce obedient and useful subjects through an educational system sponsored entirely by the state. The disbanding of the Jesuits in 1773 made nation-wide reorganization of education by the state particularly necessary. Thus in 1777 appeared the first comprehensive and royally sanctioned code of Hungarian education under the title *The System of Education and Complete Instruction in Hungary and Incorporated Provinces* (Ratio Educationis Totiusque Rei Literariae per Regnum Hungariae et Provincias Eidem Adnexas. Tomus I. Vindobonae. MDCCLXXVII. 496 p.) It is surprising that this epoch-making work, being an organic and original synthesis of the pedagogical movements in Europe at that time and for its age really unexampled, is to this day absolutely unknown abroad despite the fact that it appeared in Latin. It is the more surprising since there was not a country at that time in Europe which possessed such a universal and unified textbook code of education. The influences of the old Jesuit system, of Locke and Rousseau, of the French enlightenment, and especially of the Philanthropinists may be detected upon it; however, in the reorganization of the country's educational system the authors of the *Ratio* used these Western ideas

RATIO
EDUCATIONIS
TOTIUSQUE
REI LITERARIÆ
RER
REGNUM HUNGARIÆ
ET
PROVINCIAS
EIDEM ADNEXAS.



TOMUS I.

VINDOBONÆ.
TYPIS JOAN. THOM. NOB. DE TRATTNERN.
SAC. C.ES. REG. MAJ. TYPOGR. ET BIBL.

MDCCLXXVII.

and endeavours at reform with such uniform harmony that their work may be regarded as an original and organic structure.

The *Ratio Educationis* consists of three parts. The first has to do with the administration and material needs of schools. The second, which is the most extensive, gives the curricula for the various types of schools and also includes instructions regarding methods of teaching. The third part deals with the discipline and supervision of schools.

The school system is so constructed that each type of school is organically built upon the one lower. The lowest type is the elementary school, which may be located in a village, small town, or larger town and accordingly may have one, two, or three teachers. Upon that the three-graded grammar school is built, and this is followed by the Gymnasium with two grades. Those finishing five grades of the secondary school are eligible to courses in philosophy and later on in law at the royal academies. The culmination of this entire system is the royal university.

The significance of the *Ratio Educationis* becomes clear only when we examine the underlying principles on the basis of which it attempts for the first time to regulate Hungarian education on a national scale. The first principle for all schools in the country, either Catholic or Protestant, is systematic state supervision in the matter of a uniform curriculum, methods of teaching, administration, and discipline. The control of these is put into the hands of the royal directors, whose number is nine. Such a regulation of education, binding upon all subjects of the crown alike irrespective of denomination or nationality, is looked upon by enlightened absolutism as an absolute sovereign right. This enlightened spirit of the eighteenth century manifests itself in the stipulation that students of any religion are permitted to attend the royal Gymnasiums, academies, and university, where they are to be treated without regard to their denomination, since they are all subjects of one king and citizens of one country.

The second underlying principle of this enlightenment is that of utilitarianism, which is to be detected throughout all the measures of the *Ratio*. For the various classes of schools it sets forth a curriculum, which has bearing upon the future life of the students, and such studies as will be useful. For this reason the *Ratio* greatly extends the field of cultural subjects and broadens the curriculum upon an encyclopedic basis. The curriculum em-

braces every possible subject which may at any time be useful to the scholar. The secondary school, for example, besides religion, Latin, universal and national history and geography, natural sciences, physics and mathematics, teaches bookkeeping, natural rights and laws, and practical logic, and provides for the reading of newspapers. In the course of philosophy, which is now equivalent to the two upper grades of the secondary school, very specialized instruction in rural economics was planned. The Instructions for the teaching of the various subjects everywhere make special mention of the practical use which each subject is to serve.

Although the *Ratio* inserts a great amount of scientific and technical material into the curriculum, nevertheless comparatively little of it is included in actual school life, since there is neither the teacher nor the means. Thus the curriculum of the secondary schools and the philosophy courses continued to exhaust itself mainly with instruction in Latin, the purpose of which is entirely guided by its worth for practical living. The *Ratio* time and again emphasizes the principle that the chief aim of the Latin schools is to produce efficient officials for the State, such men as can thoroughly understand Latin and are conversant with the practical affairs of their office. Hungary at this time was a Latin country; Latin was the language of politics and public affairs. It is natural, therefore, that schools should conform to the ideal of the rhetorical culture common in public life. The object of this Latin culture of the schools was that the nobleman at county or national gatherings, the lawyer before a court, and the professor in the classroom should be able to speak and debate in Latin fluently and that the county or state official should be able to write fluent Latin letters and documents. Hence the Latin schools, as their name indicates, until the middle of the nineteenth century devoted more than three-fourths of the school time to the teaching of Latin grammar, sentence structure, syntax, rhetoric, and poetics. Latin was the only universal instrumental study preparing for public life. The ideal of a Latin rhetorical education naturally resulted from the entire Hungarian national life and constitution at that time.

It is surprising with what great emphasis the *Ratio* makes physical education a task of the schools in an age in which not one of the European states provided for systematic physical

education, although the Philanthropinists could not sufficiently stress its significance. The *Ratio* is the first European State code systematically organizing physical education, especially games. It makes it the duty of cities to provide two playgrounds, one near the school so that pupils can play while school is out of session, and another on the confines of the town among shady trees and with fresh water close by. Each class is to have a separate place on the school playground. Games must be planned; each school must decide the type, progress, and time of games. Play must be based on merit, unworthy pupils being barred from common games.

For the public schools the *Ratio* adopts in its entirety the Felbiger normal method, which was common in Austria and the use of which had been ordered in Hungary at some previous time. According to this method every member of a class reads in unison. This primitive and somewhat heavy method, however, in reality could not find its way permanently into Hungarian public schools.

THE GERMANIZATION OF HUNGARIAN EDUCATION

This first great official code of Hungarian education did not have time to become effective and to be confirmed in actual life. Scarcely three years after its appearance Joseph II succeeded to the throne and, although he approved the *Ratio* on paper, he nevertheless hindered its actual realization by many acts. This stubborn representative of a policy of enlightened absolutism put above all else the rational unity of his state, that is, of his many-tongued kingdom, and demanded the education of his people to be upon the basis of common principles. Opposed to the prerogatives of the nobility, he reduced the number of the Gymnasiums and higher schools which served the educational needs of the nobility, and desired to obstruct the development of an intellectual proletariat by charging students considerable tuition fees. According to his physiocratic conception of social economics, he had at heart, above all else, the schooling of the rural peasant class. He desired to give every citizen of the state at least a minimum of education. For this reason he ordered general compulsory education with sanctions of penalty and set up public schools in great numbers (about 500 even during the war years of 1788-1789). He discontinued the institutions of re-

fectories and dormitories and replaced them with scholarships. He dissolved all monastic orders, making a complete change in the teaching staff; and thus a great scarcity of teachers arose. He reorganized the Committee on Education at the court of Vienna in order that it might enforce educational reforms on a uniform basis (1782). Although he issued his *Edictum Tolerantiae* with reference to Protestants, he had no regard for their autonomy in education, but placed Protestant schools also under general state regulation. Protestants, however, as they had against the *Ratio* during the time of Maria Theresa, again raised a protest against this imperial edict, basing their stand upon their rights ensured by the peace treaties of Vienna and Linz; in the same way protest arose against the edict, *Normal Regia*, of 1782, which regulated education in Transylvania. But order in Hungarian education, which was well on the way to establishment, was most of all disturbed by the measure of Joseph which made German the universal official and school language throughout the monarchy (1784). Accordingly, no public school teacher could hold his position unless he spoke German, and only such students as could read and write German were admissible to the Gymnasiums. Within a year all subjects in every type of school were to be taught in German only.

Against Joseph's linguistic edict the nation rose in fervent protest; it awakened to the significance of the Hungarian tongue in school and public life. And there began a struggle against Latin and German, which lasted more than half a century, until finally Article II of the Act of 1844 changed the language of secondary schools from Latin to Magyar. The national tongue from this time on became the keystone of the Hungarian educational ideal.

PROPOSALS OF THE EDUCATION COMMITTEE OF THE DIET OF 1790-1791

The daring endeavour of Joseph to unify his kingdom proved a failure. Along with it went his edict for Germanizing the schools. An awakening of nationalism radically made itself felt in the Parliament of 1790-1791. In the field of public education the slogan became *educatio nationalis*. Maria Theresa and Joseph, as absolute monarchs, had regulated Hungarian education from above by edicts. Now Parliament declared that the

nation should independently reorganize its educational policy according to a Hungarian nationalist spirit. Parliament therefore appointed a committee to determine the principles of a "nationalist education." King Leopold, however, even before he annulled Joseph's edicts on education, declared that through the schools "he desired to spread the Hungarian language throughout the entire Hungarian kingdom." The *Ratio Educationis* had not recognized the priority of the Magyar language over the languages of other nationalities in the kingdom; it had not even so much as made mention of it; the Emperor Joseph, moreover, had made direct efforts to establish forcibly the hegemony of the German language. And now this measure of King Leopold was the first State action which officially recognized the priority of the Hungarian language and considered its enhancement and propagation a duty of the schools. Had this royal program been actually put into practice, it would have been the first official germ of a cultural policy which had for its object the development of the Hungarian national state.

It is to the glory of the Hungarian nation that the Hungarian Parliament was the first legislative body in Europe to subject education to a systematic consideration. Its committee, after working for two years, prepared a lengthy proposal with reference to the underlying principles of a nationalistic education. Its central idea is the uniform organization of public education, giving the same intellectual and physical education and the same instruction to all, irrespective of nationality or denomination. This is the principle of uniformity which had originated the *Ratio* in 1777 during the era of enlightened absolutism. Only now the conception of uniformity takes on a nationalistic colour; in fact, it directly becomes the underlying principle of nationalistic education.

This proposal is permeated with the enlightened spirit and pedagogical enthusiasm of the eighteenth century. Part I proclaims the power of the State to reduce all schools to uniformity. Part II makes a stand for a democratic cultural policy, according to which there should be appropriate schools for the cultural demands of every class of citizen and of every stratum of society. There should be public schools in all places where a denomination holds services. The proposal endeavours to make public education free. Primary schools are to be maintained by villages and,

if they are not able to do this, it is the duty of landowners to provide aid. Loyalty to the constitution must be inculcated in the rural and industrial classes at an early age. Thus, "public school readers must discuss according to the comprehension of the child all such matters as fully show the manifold blessings accruing to them as a result of the constitution." Here was the germ of civic instruction in the field of public education. Although the proposal proclaims a liberal attitude, keeping schools open for everybody, nevertheless, fearful of an intellectual proletariat, it recommends caution that "any excessive tendency on the part of people to attend higher schools should not side-track from agriculture, industry, and commerce such as might be of greatest usefulness to the state in these fields."

The principle of religious tolerance, too, triumphs in this proposal. The subject matter and textbooks—it says—should be so chosen that these can be studied freely by students of any religious sect, seeing that educational institutions are to be open to people without regard to denomination. It also declares that after a certain time no one shall be eligible to any trade and to village or city offices, who has not at least a primary education. Teachers are to be regarded as officials of the State and those that excel in the field of public education are to be rewarded. A satisfactory pension is to be provided for those who become aged in the service. The closing paragraph of the proposal asks the King to have all acts and instructions with reference to public education appear in print. The problem of public education is to be regarded as an affair of all citizens, and they are to take notice of relevant acts in order that they may offer any suggestions or changes which may occur to them. The matter of public education, therefore, must be placed under the permanent control of national public opinion.

This proposal very truly reflects the cultural desires of the nation's spirit in this age. Very soon, however, the country fell into a very sad historical situation—into the storm of the great French wars, when military affairs forced cultural matters into the background. Even so, this proposal remains one of the most valuable monuments in the history of Hungarian education, a testimony to the fact that Hungary was a very deep bed of the intellectual currents and cultural endeavours then dominant in Western Europe. Every fundamental principle of educational

policy in line with the current enlightenment comes to the fore in it; looking at the paragraphs of this proposal, we discover the very thoughts which Diderot a century and a half before had propounded in his plan for public education, prepared for Catherine, Czarina of Russia, or we seem to be reading the educational proposals made by Talleyrand and Condorcet at about the same time, to the French National Assembly. This is, indeed, very natural, since the proposal came from a committee of a Diet the members of which at the opening had sworn an oath modelled on the French citizen's oath. This proposal, like its prototypes, emphasized uniformity of State education, since public instruction is a common matter for the entire nation. It likewise stressed the universality of education and culture, proclaiming that the possibility of cultivating one's mind was an inherent right of man and that none can be divested of it, ignorance, absence of culture, and intellectual darkness all being fatal crimes against the individual and against the nation. For this very reason even the lowest stratum of society, the peasants, were not to be kept from the blessings of culture and were to be elevated intellectually by making specific provisions for their needs. It is uplifting to see that Hungarians even in the nineteenth century, still the age of class privileges, did not regard culture as the special right of the upper social classes, but proclaimed the principle that all schools should be open to people regardless of their rank. Coming out of the democratic spirit so dominant in Europe at that time, the proposals demanded that private education be supplanted by general public education or at least be completed by an examination given in a state school.

THE RATIO EDUCATIONIS OF 1806

On account of his fear of French revolutionary ideas and the Napoleonic wars, Francis I did not permit the Hungarian Parliament to discuss the proposals. Instead he issued a second *Ratio* (in 1806) to function as the code of Hungarian public education; this remained in effect till 1849 (*Ratio Educationis Publicae Totiusque Rei Literariae per Regnum Hungariae et Provincias Eidem Adnexas*. Budae. 1805. 315 p.). The enlightenment and nationalistic colour of the proposals made by the parliamentary committee in 1791 were not to be found in the new code. Institu-

tions designed to serve nationalistic cultural aims (Hungarian Scientific Society, Academy of Arts, Military Academy, etc.), which had been urged for years, remained only on paper. The unity of "nationalistic education" was not accomplished even by the new *Ratio*; Protestants did not acknowledge the validity of the new general code, but protested against it and further maintained their right of self-government in educational matters.

This second *Ratio* scarcely made any progress over the first in the field of public education. It changed the organization of the secondary schools in that the grades of grammar schools were raised from three to four, to which were added the two classes in the humanities. It reduced the number of the subjects to be taught as outlined in the first *Ratio* and forced realistic-technical tendencies into the background. In this way it even more effectively favoured the ideal of a Latin rhetorical culture. It shifted the Greek language to the course in philosophy as a special subject. As against that of 1777, the *Ratio* of 1806 was by far more precise and compact, separating the parts on the curriculum and on methods from each other. Its spirit was more unified and less encyclopedic; moreover, in its stress upon pure utilitarianism there may be detected here and there a sense of the significance and content of the cultural ideal. On the other hand, it gives the real subjects such an insignificant place that the material becomes one-sided. Over against the first *Ratio*, pioneer as it was in its way, the historical significance of the second is increased by the fact that, while a very great part of the first remained only on paper as pure demands, the second in its totality struck living root and for almost half a century directed the life of Hungarian educational institutions. In essence it is entirely the product of a conservative world view and educational policy.

PROTESTANT SCHOOL REFORMS AT THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

While Protestants did not accept the State *Ratio*, they were nevertheless influenced by it. Lutherans in 1805 made a definite attempt to effect a uniform reorganization of their education by publishing the so-called *Systema Scholarum*. Its author, Schedius, a university professor, used the Prussian classical Gymnasium as a type. He desired to organize middle schools to take a place beside the public schools in the larger cities. This educa-

tional codex never went into effect, chiefly because of the absence of financial backing. The Reformed Church about this time (1807) also reorganized its educational system by adopting the *Ratio Institutionis*. The educational ideal of this is predominantly of a Latin rhetorical character. Otherwise the frequently modified curricula of the two Reformed schools at Debrecen and Sárospatak show, from the end of the eighteenth century, the alternating dominance of the humanist and realistic tendencies. The Philanthropinist and the neo-humanist spirit, which Protestant professors imbibed in German universities, struggled with one another in the Protestant school reforms. Pedagogical literature of the early nineteenth century urged the adoption of many modern pedagogical ideas, among them the teaching of modern language and literature, the self-government of students, the psychological examination of youth, physical education and excursions, the ideas of the "open air" school, of laboratory experiments, and of civic education, the founding of vocational schools, and the organization of teacher training.

EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS DURING THE ERA OF NATIONAL REFORMS

Hungarian Parliaments during the Napoleonic wars up to the Diet of 1812 constantly demanded the reorganization of public instruction even after the appearance of the *Ratio* of 1806. After the fall of Napoleon absolutism also triumphs in Hungary under the shadow of the Holy Alliance. But this is not the enlightened absolutism of the Emperor Joseph, which heartily favours the education of the people; it is patriarchal absolutism, which aims to shut the country off completely from currents of Western thought.

With the appearance of Széchenyi, the Parliament of 1825-1827 was a turning point, for it vigorously initiated the so-called Hungarian renaissance. The leading thought of this movement was to make good as fast as possible all that had been lost by the nation in the field of cultural progress. The best of Hungarian society took part in formulating the new nationalistic cultural ideal. The problem of education, like the problem of the nation's future, had perhaps never before interested the leading men so deeply and so generally as in the Reform Era. Politics and pedagogy became closely allied, on the principle that good education is the best national policy. This thought was most emphati-

cally proclaimed by Széchenyi, inasmuch as he saw the guarantee of the survival of the nation in an intellectual renaissance, the condition of which was a well directed educational system. Inspired by this idea, Hungarian politicians and writers did not regard public instruction as the problem of the specialist only, but as the most actual and significant problem of the nation as a whole. Beginning with 1820, the subject of common interest was primarily elementary education and higher education only secondarily. This is well understood from the romantic spirit of the Hungarian nation, because it was also only a wave of Romanticism so current in Europe at the time. And one of the chief characteristics of Romanticism is democracy, which claims that it is not the upper class that is really valuable but the lower—the innocent and unspoiled natural people—a class which, in the theory of Rousseau, culture had not yet marred. For this reason the subject of romantic literature, as in the novels of Eötvös, who later became Minister of Education, is the son of the suppressed people, who is the source of hitherto unsurmised power. But above the people looms the child, the lovable, innocent child, who comes into an unloving, artificial, cruel social order which blunts him and blocks the free unfolding of his capacities. The emphasis of Hungarian educational policies during the Reform Era—under the influence of Pestalozzi and in line with contemporary currents of thought—fell upon elementary education, which in fact was very much neglected. The Parliament of 1825 made the deplorable state of public education one of its chief complaints to the king. It urged the increase of the number of public elementary schools, the employment of travelling teachers and preachers for farms too distant from villages, general compulsory education, the compulsory enrolment of village children in schools, and the establishment of village libraries for the education of adults. The Parliament of 1825-1827, which ushered in the Renaissance of Hungary, did not neglect the question of secondary and higher education, either; it demanded that Hungarian, instead of Latin, should be made the language of instruction. It further demanded the establishment of middle schools and Real schools after the Western European fashion and the founding of a polytechnical school; the organization of secondary education for girls; and provision for the training of teachers in the University of Pest. Parliament pro-

tested against the unconstitutional interference in Hungarian educational affairs of the Committee on Education in Vienna and also against the dependence of the University of Pest upon that at Vienna. It further demanded that Hungarian students be permitted to study in foreign universities and that prohibitions against this be abolished. Parliament questioned the right of the king to act in matters of public instruction without consulting it. For the reorganization of public instruction, Parliament in 1826 appointed a committee, whose work appeared under the title *Opinio* (1830). This was sent to all interested bodies in counties and cities, that they might make their criticisms of the new plan and give proper instruction to their representatives in the event that the plan came up for discussion in Parliament. It is inspiring to see that the legislative bodies of a nation that had just awakened from a deep sleep should in the early thirties of the nineteenth century enthusiastically discuss the problems of Hungarian education and that everybody should be scheming to find the methods whereby Hungarian culture might be speedily elevated. Scarcely ever have Hungarians interested themselves to such an extent in the problems of public instruction, and it has not happened since that legislative bodies throughout the nation should so fervently debate as to what the content and organization of the elementary school should be. How could advanced courses in industrial and agricultural subjects be added to meet the needs of public schools? Is Greek necessary in the Gymnasium? What should be taught in geometry and history? What shall the education of Hungarian girls be like? Would it not be good to create playgrounds and swimming baths adjoining schools?

The work of the committee on public education, however, proceeding along very moderate lines and following the *Ratio*, was futile. The king declared that the matter of public instruction was a royal prerogative and laws relative to it were unnecessary. Parliament protested from year to year against this conception and retained the matter of education on its calendar. Finally the government, in 1841, entrusted Baron Alois Mednyánszky with the drafting of new plans for public instruction. This plan of reform, which endeavoured to strike a happy medium between humanistic and realistic content and, over against Latin, gave Hungarian a significant place, was shelved by the Austrian

committee on education and by court politics. Thus the *Ratio* of 1806 remained in force up to the War of Independence of 1848-1849. The Protestant denominations, enjoying autonomous rights in the matter of their schools, also worked out a new system at about this time, for example, the neo-humanist plans of the Lutherans in 1841-1843; but this did not come into force, either.

REFORMS WITH REALISTIC TENDENCIES

The *Ratio* of 1777 had endeavoured to adapt its system to the characteristic economic demands of the country. Most of its measures relative to this, however, remained only on paper. Technical training for a long time was given by only one institution, the Academy of Mining founded at Selmec in 1763, which very soon obtained a high reputation throughout Europe and became a model for other countries. Even the French in the building of their *Ecole Polytechnique* had in mind the Academy at Selmec (1794). The significance of agricultural and industrial schools was first appreciated by Samuel Tessedik, who in 1780 established such a school at Szarvas; in 1791 he developed it into the *Praktisch-Oekonomisches Industrial-Institut*. This Hungarian Basedow, however, after several years was forced to close his school because of lack of funds. From the end of the eighteenth century, however, the nation increasingly felt that purely Latin schools must not monopolize the possibilities of education and that practical schools were a crying need of the country, if it was to develop soundly. At the end of the eighteenth century there were only two modest institutions serving this need—the drawing schools started by Maria Theresa and the Engineers' Institute opened in 1782 by Joseph II at the university. It was also in the eighteenth century that the first middle schools (*Polgari iskola*)¹ came into being in Hungary fashioned after the German Philanthropist spirit.

In the thirties of the nineteenth century, during the era of national reforms, the leaders of the nation, with Count Stephen Széchenyi at their head, became clearly conscious of the great shortcoming of Hungarian public education, namely, the lack of Real technical schools. The transformation of economic life, the

¹ The German equivalent for this is *Bürgerschule*. In general this school, as will be seen from the text, is equivalent to a higher elementary school.

extraordinary development of natural sciences and technical knowledge, the waning of the classical spirit, and the increasing rise of the democratic and liberal spirit made the value of a practical education absolutely paramount. The significance of modern languages and literature as compared with Latin gradually increased. "The school should prepare for life!" This became the cry of leading political circles. Széchenyi demanded the establishment of Real schools and a technological academy, that the strong current toward the legal career might be turned toward more practical professions; Kossuth also expected to see an educated middle class rise from the Real and industrial schools. The demands of Parliament in this direction were rejected by the court at Vienna. The first professional schools were private institutions. Such were the agricultural school, *Georgikon*, founded in 1797 by Count George Festetich at Keszthely, and the very excellent agricultural academy organized by Prince Casimir Albert of Teschen in 1818. Inasmuch as at this time there were no highly developed industries, more systematic industrial training was given by the apprentice schools and by industrial courses started as a result of Kossuth's urging. The first Hungarian commercial school (founded by Emmanuel Bibanco in 1830) was also a private institution. The first official plan for professional schools was prepared by Baron Alois Mednyánszky at the request of the government (1842). The plan and curriculum of his vocational school was grouped into three branches—commercial, agricultural, and industrial. Out of this plan, often redrafted, came the Joseph Industrial School, which later developed into the Royal Hungarian Joseph Technical University.

DEMOCRATIC POLICIES IN EDUCATION

In the spring of 1848 was appointed the first Cabinet responsible to king and Parliament. The first Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, Baron Joseph Eötvös, desired primarily to take care of public education. He introduced a law making school attendance compulsory for all and public instruction free and primarily the responsibility of communities; besides communities, the various denominations were also permitted to maintain public schools. This measure was adopted by the lower house of Parliament, but in view of the disturbances that arose

because of the war of independence, the upper house tabled it. Previously, however, Article XX of the law of 1848 had declared that the expenses of all churches and schools maintained by denominations should be defrayed by the State. The reform of secondary schools and of the university remained only a project as a result of the outbreak of the war. The law recognized the freedom of teaching and learning in the university and placed the university under the immediate control of the Ministry of Education. The war was well on its way when in July, 1848, Hungarian teachers from the entire country held a general congress to fix the underlying principles of a law regarding a unified public instruction. Its measures were inspired by an extreme democratic and liberal spirit. It desired to bring all education under State control and to place the administration of education on an entirely autonomous basis, and declared, further, that religious instruction was a private matter.

THE PERIOD OF AUSTRIAN ABSOLUTISM (1849-1860)

After the tragic failure of the war of independence as a result of Russian aid, the unscrupulous absolutism of Vienna swept down upon the nation (1849-1860), Hungarian education came under the dictatorship of Count Leo Thun, who controlled by absolute edicts and by every means of forceful Germanization, disregarding every tradition of Hungarian culture. This absolutism, on the whole, cared very little for the education of the people; Count Thun was interested chiefly in secondary and higher schools. One of his edicts (1855) left the establishment and maintenance of public elementary schools entirely to the villages. He extended compulsory attendance to the twelfth year; inasmuch as he provided only four grades for elementary schools, children were able to finish grade school at the age of ten. The number of pupils for one teacher was set at one hundred. Count Thun ordered the teaching of German in elementary schools, too; his enthusiastic school directors proudly declared that even the Lowland herdsmen would study their alphabet in German. He enforced the use of new textbooks, which were designed to train pupils in love toward the "whole empire" and in absolute respect for the Emperor. Despite many ancient laws, he deprived Protestant denominations of their right of self-government as early as 1850.

The new organization of Hungarian secondary schools was defined for the entire Austrian empire by the Ordinance of 1849 (*Entwurf der Organisation der Gymnasien und Realschulen in Oesterreich. Vom Ministerium des Cultus und Unterrichts. Vienna*). Because this work of the famous Austrian school organizer, Exner, and of the great Prussian philologist, Bonitz, was forced upon the nation and, because of its strong Germanizing tendency, this code of education remained odious in the eyes of the nation. In the light of history, however, we are now constrained to admit that since the *Ratio* of 1777 this was the most valuable guidebook of Hungarian secondary education. Its sections on organization and pedagogy permanently and beneficially influenced Hungarian secondary education. Its significance lay in the first place in the fact that it defined the general intellectual and material conditions for public schools and declared that any school not attaining this standard would forfeit its official accredited status. The strict and consistent enforcement of this order caused much grief and hate; yet ultimately it was useful because it compelled school supporters to do their utmost to raise the level of schools by obtaining more teachers, giving them better training, and providing satisfactory school buildings and equipment.

The *Entwurf* united the former six-graded Gymnasium and the two-graded philosophy or academy course into an eight-graded Gymnasium. This it again divided into two sections—a four-graded lower Gymnasium, which was equivalent to the grammar school of the *Ratio*, and the four-graded upper Gymnasium, which comprised the two grades in each of the old humanity and philosophy courses. The curriculum was so constructed that the lower Gymnasium gave a relatively finished, yet simpler general education to those who did not desire to continue their studies; on the other hand, it afforded the proper basis for those who wished to finish the higher Gymnasium and later to attend the university. Permeated as it was with the neo-humanist spirit, this curriculum struck a happy balance with the real elements of education. Compared with the archaic *Ratio*, it was a great advance with reference both to its choice of material and to its instructions of method.

The second outstanding significance of the *Entwurf* is that it first organized secondary schools of a realistic tendency and

established Real schools in order to satisfy the practical and technical needs of education. Like the Gymnasium, the Real schools also fell into two divisions. The upper school was a three-year course and aimed to prepare for higher technical schools. The lower Real school was rather flexible; it might have two-, three-, or four-year courses according to local circumstances and needs. Real schools spread rapidly, for already in 1865 twenty-six of them were active in the country. Their original fault was that they desired to give at the same time general education and professional training, to serve both theory and practical life. We may well understand, therefore, the development which in 1875 led to the change of the practical-technical nature of the Real schools and their elevation to the rank of Gymnasium, their task being to give a general education in mathematics and natural sciences on the one hand and in modern languages and literature on the other.

The *Entwurf* is decisively important not only with reference to the school system and method. Three-quarters of a century ago it laid the foundation of the modern Hungarian secondary school in still another way. In organizing a system of general education and in preparing for advanced studies, it defined the task of instruction in the Gymnasium which stands the test to this day. The training and education of teachers were also made necessary by the *Entwurf*; the increase in requirements with reference to the specialized training and pedagogic preparation of teachers is no small glory of this new regulation. It changed the old system whereby one teacher taught a class all subjects for one whereby he taught only in his field of specialization. The introduction of "maturity examinations" also aimed at raising the standard of the schools. The development of helps for instruction, of adequate equipment, and of a library for teachers was made a serious duty. The standard of textbooks and their necessary uniformity was also assured. Many roots of the modern curriculum and disciplinary system, administration, and regulations for maturity examinations may be traced back to the historic source of the *Entwurf*.

The modernization of the University of Budapest also came about during the era of absolutism. The *Official Regulation*, issued by Count Thun on September 30, 1849, dealing with the organization and life of the university, with a few alterations

is essentially still in effect. The organization of the Prussian universities served as a model for this regulation. The Joseph Industrial School, previously mentioned, was in 1850 amalgamated by the Viennese government with the Engineers' Institute, which was separated from the Faculty of Philosophy, and the united school was raised to the rank of a technological college.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1868

In accordance with the Edict of October, 1860, issued by the Emperor Francis Joseph, the control of Hungarian public instruction was transferred from Vienna to Buda. Freed from the suppression of absolutism, the nation launched various experiments for the reorganization of education. This reorganization, however, met with success only when the ruler made peace with the nation in 1867 and, having been crowned king, appointed a responsible ministry. The Minister of Education, Baron Joseph Eötvös, regarded the legal regulation of public education as his primary task, precisely as he had done in 1848. In presenting his proposals in 1868, Eötvös affirmed, "Inasmuch as the phase of public education which deals with the schooling of the masses lies closer to the interests of the nation and inasmuch as the spirit of the constitution is democratic and constrains us to look for the basis of our public education in the task of educating the masses, in my belief this undoubtedly is the first step to be taken in this matter." The Act of 1868, which regulated the entire system of public instruction, was a fundamental law still of paramount significance in its far-reaching application to modern Hungarian culture. It stipulates general compulsory school attendance from the age of six to fifteen, subject to a penalty for disobedience. The elementary school has two courses—day school, lasting six years, and continuation school, lasting three years. The law further provides higher elementary schools for more populous communities in order that more advanced instruction might be brought to the people, especially in the field of practical, agricultural, and industrial knowledge. This type of school, however, did not flourish.

The primary significance of this law is to be found in the fact that it regulates, in its 148 paragraphs, compulsory education of the people along every line: compulsory teaching, the rights of establishing public schools, their types and curricula, train-

ing and official status of teachers. Its value is especially apparent when we consider that England did not pass her first public education act until two years later, in 1870 (Elementary Education Act), though this Act did not provide the principle of general compulsory education. It is also clear, when we consider that, although France had had a law regarding public education since 1833, it was so incomplete and ineffective that Jules Ferry was obliged toward the beginning of the eighties to provide for a new law to guarantee a unified, organic development of elementary education, and compulsory education was made a law in France only in 1882. This took place in Piedmont as early as 1859 (*Legge Curati*), yet throughout the whole of Italy elementary education did not become generally compulsory until after the birth of *Unita Italia* in 1871.

Besides this democratic spirit the law of 1868 has the second characteristic of liberalism. The author of the law believed that full freedom and equality in the field of elementary education would bring the nation more closely together, divided as it was into denominations, nationalities, and languages of various sorts. The result of this was that, provided the conditions of the law were observed, elementary schools were permitted to be opened and maintained by any fictitious or natural person—denomination, State, society, or individual. And since denominations are often closely linked with a particular nationality, individual nationalities (Roumanians, Serbs, Slovaks, Germans) could and still can freely establish schools under the title of a denomination or community. The law regarded the community as primarily responsible for the establishment of schools and placed this duty upon it. The rôle of the State was limited primarily to the assistance of communities in case their financial circumstances made it necessary. The State, however, also reserved the right, if it saw fit, to establish schools anywhere at its own expense, aside from such schools as communities were obliged by law to maintain. The centralization of schools, therefore, was originally far from the intentions of Hungarian legislators.

The Hungarian Parliament regulated elementary education with the utmost liberalism and unstinting respect for individual and corporate rights even where the interests of the State would have dictated greater strictness in the definition of rights. Article 38 of the Act of 1868 gave unlimited right of establishing

schools. This law stipulates that *each pupil shall be instructed in his mother tongue if that tongue is generally used in the parish*. This in truth guarantees minority nationalities the right of using their mother tongue and even provides possibilities for developing it. These legal rights were increased still more by Article 44, dealing with the equality of nationalities, according to which *denominations have full power to say which language is to be used in teaching*, and, wherever the State sets up a school, there provisions must be made also for teaching in the mother tongue. With these laws, which *gave almost unlimited autonomy to national minorities* in the matter of elementary education, it was the Hungarian legislation itself which set up the greatest obstacle in the way of a unified, nationalistic, elementary education. The Ministry of Education was acquainted with these difficulties and struggled with them for decades, but it never, not even when it had legal right to do so, used forceful measures against the nationalities, which, on the other hand, took full advantage of their right to maintain schools and used it against the Hungarian nation. This legal right of denominations and communities to establish schools was held in respect by every Hungarian administration. When the State began to give financial aid to denominational schools, those using the language of minority nationalities were just as fully entitled to State aid as those using Hungarian; and this aid was freely accepted by all of them, with the exception of the wealthy and exclusive Serbian Orthodox schools.

Despite these facts, certain leaders of the nationality groups constantly charged the Ministry of Education with attempting to forcibly Magyarize the nationalities through the schools. Enemies of the Hungarian race, however, cannot point to a single case where the Hungarian government interfered with the right of denominations and nationalities to establish their elementary schools or confiscated the right to determine the language of instruction of any such school. Those maintaining a school had full right to decide whether the mother tongue should be, either in whole or in part, the language of their school. This right was restricted only by Article 27 of the Act of 1907 providing that, where the language of any school at the time of the enactment of the law was Hungarian, there no changes could be made. This same law empowered the State, in the case of financial

inability on the part of school supporters, to raise the salary of teachers in non-State, that is, denominational or community schools, to the level of State-employed teachers and to cover the difference out of its own resources. Schools using other than the Hungarian language could expect this state aid, however, only if they satisfied the conditions of the law with respect to the teaching of Hungarian, the curriculum, the textbooks, and the qualifications of teachers. According to this law all schools using other than the Hungarian language, whether receiving state aid or not, were to include the teaching of Hungarian in all classes according to a prescribed course and in the number of hours decided by the Ministry in conjunction with the representatives of the denomination. Hungarian was to be taught so that a non-Hungarian child, after passing the fourth standard, could intelligently use Hungarian both in writing and in speaking.

In the light of history the charges made in the past against the Hungarian policy of elementary education may be reduced to one. The government, contrary to the original intention of Article 38 of the Act of 1868, began to establish more and more elementary schools in the latter part of the past century, and these used the Hungarian language even in parishes where the population was predominantly non-Magyar. We must note, however, that this action of the government with reference to the language of instruction in school met with antagonism in comparatively few places. The founding of State schools or the transformation of non-State schools into State schools was effected at all times by the request of communities or school managers and never against their will, and, although State schools had Hungarian as the language of instruction even in communities of minority nationalities, an overwhelming majority of the non-Magyar groups considered it important from a practical point of view that their children should master the Hungarian language inasmuch as Hungarian, the language of the State and of economic life, was necessary or at least useful for all who did not wish to remain behind the plough in their own villages. In most places Hungarian State schools were not forced upon the people by the government but were applied for by the people themselves. Countless proofs might be adduced to show that non-Magyar communities themselves demanded State elementary schools using the Hungarian language. This was so particu-

larly in the case of German, Ruthenian, and Slovak inhabitants. It must also be taken into account that in many places where schools with Hungarian as the language of instruction were established by the State, the denominational school remained and the mother tongue of the nationality continued to be taught. Such a drastic measure as that adopted by the Roumanian, Serbian, and Czech governments today, according to which the government itself decides where the child shall be sent, cannot be paralleled by a single instance in the history of Hungarian elementary education; *parents could at any time send their children to a school of such a language of instruction as they desired*. Neither race nor denomination nor family name ever served as decisive points in this matter. The analysis of family names with the intention of depriving children of an education in their mother tongue was never employed in Hungary. (Such a crime against a most natural human right, however, has been perpetrated by the States which annexed Hungarian territories in 1919.) In a few cases what might have happened was that school supporters were exposed to a little *douce violence* by subordinate officials in order that they might choose Hungarian for the language of instruction. To this may be attributed the fact that teaching in a non-Magyar tongue was eliminated in places where the majority of the inhabitants favoured the continuation of the use of their own tongue. It is an indubitable and an irrefutable fact, however, that the right of school supporters to decide which language was to be used remained inviolable to the end and that this right was enjoyed without any legal hindrance by all who clung to their mother tongue.

That non-Hungarian speaking inhabitants not only tolerated, but desired, teaching given in Hungarian was most convincingly proved by their conduct subsequent to 1918. It was frequently the case in territories occupied by the Czech that the Slovak elements clung to Hungarian as the language of instruction. We often find the complaint made by Czech writers that the Slovaks are still Hungarian sympathizers, and even after their "liberation" they like to call themselves Hungarians, to send their children to Hungarian schools, to speak Hungarian, to read Hungarian books and papers, and so on. Germans of the counties of Szatmár, Temesvár, Bácska, and so forth, long after Hungarian rule had ceased, persistently stood by the Hungarian

education of their children, even despite the pressure and persecution of the new authorities. The Croats of the county of Somogy and the Bunyevaces (Catholic Serbians) of Baranya and Bácska adhered to Hungarian as the language of instruction for three years during the occupation of the country by the Serbs, not heeding the commands and threats of their racial kinsmen.

As contrasted with people who voluntarily sympathized with the Magyar race and, after being in the country for over two hundred years were of themselves becoming assimilated, there were national minorities, which in some measure isolated themselves from the Magyars and favored the use of their mother tongue in their schools. The Hungarian government always permitted even these to use strictly their own language in teaching. They had absolutely no reason for complaint, especially if we take into consideration the unthinkable treatment accorded by the so-called Succession States to the national minorities and, in particular, to the Magyars. The Saxons of Transylvania, for instance, consisting of fewer than 200,000 people, yet separatist in nature and most tenaciously clinging to their race, could excellently develop their German schools under Hungarian rule without the slightest interference. They had 234 elementary schools, seven middle schools, seven Gymnasiums, two Real schools, two teacher training schools, and many professional schools. In all these schools teaching was conducted in German and the teaching of the State tongue, Hungarian, was reduced to the minimum and was otherwise practically unsuccessful. On top of this practice, these schools received a very significant State aid under Hungarian rule.

Greek Catholic Serbs through their denominational autonomy also maintained a great many (258) elementary schools, eight middle schools, two teacher training schools, and one Gymnasium. They enjoyed their minority rights so abundantly that even in communities where they were only a very small minority, they maintained purely Serb-speaking schools for only ten to fifteen children. Roumanians under the aegis of the Greek Catholic and Greek Orthodox denominations could maintain an enormous number of schools (1,816 elementary and five secondary schools in 1915-1916), a significant majority of which also received State aid.

That at the same time the Germans had only 422 schools using the mother tongue and the Slovaks 310 may be attributed to their weaker national consciousness and also to the fact that these nationalities manifested a greater tendency toward assimilation, particularly for practical reasons. That the Hungarian government did not regard with disfavour, but rather gladly supported this tendency toward assimilation, can be least taken amiss by those nationalities which today do not content themselves with *douce violence*, but, trampling upon the minority rights ensured by the Trianon Treaty, through laws and open force suddenly closed the schools of the three and a half million Magyars who fell under their rule by the hundreds and under all sorts of pretexts prohibited tens of thousands of Magyar children from attending those Hungarian schools, which, however, were somehow able to continue.

Hungary, whose territory the coercive peace edict of Trianon has reduced almost to one-fourth of its former size and on the principle of the self-determination of nations forced approximately three and a half million Hungarians under foreign rule without the right of self-determination, today respects the right of national minorities in the field of education to a greater extent than ever. The old, unexampled liberal rights with respect to the maintenance of schools and the selection of their language she has greatly expanded. Measures relevant in this matter will be dealt with in the section which deals with the general description of modern Hungarian elementary schools.

THE MIDDLE SCHOOL (POLGÁRI ISKOLA, BÜRGERSCHULE)

The Elementary Education Act of 1868, which dealt with the organization, curriculum, and administration of elementary and higher elementary schools and training colleges, introduced a new type of school into the system of Hungarian education, namely, the middle school. This type was designed by the law to round off the education of the general masses, but it aimed also to give a preparatory education to such students as desired to study further, but not to enter any profession that demanded a highly specialized education. The curriculum of the middle school embraced the elements of an average practical education. This type soon gained great popularity. We shall describe it more fully later.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS ACT OF 1883

The regulation by law of the secondary schools became an absolute necessity after the cessation of absolutism. The older laws of 1791-1792 and 1844 mentioned the secondary schools (Latin schools) only in connection with the necessity of teaching the Hungarian language. The *Rationes Educationis*, issued in 1777 and 1806, were merely royal edicts and not constitutional enactments. The autonomous Protestant denominations, therefore, never recognized them as binding and voluntarily adjusted themselves only in so far as it suited their purpose. This holds true also of the *Entwurf* issued during the period of absolutism (1849). After 1860 the ordinances issued by the Governing Council had reference only to the Catholic and community secondary schools. With the advent of the constitutional era, Baron Joseph Eötvös, Minister of Education, decided to effect a reorganization of the secondary schools, too; and in 1869 he introduced a complex system of nine grades, the materialization of which his successor gradually stopped, introducing in its stead a system which approximated to the Gymnasium of the *Entwurf* (1871).

After a debate lasting over a decade there came into existence in 1883 a law which dealt with the life of the secondary school from all possible angles. According to this law, the task of a secondary school, that is, of the Gymnasium and the Real school, is to give the youth a general higher education and prepare them for more advanced study. This task is fulfilled in the Gymnasium by the teaching of the humanities, especially of the ancient classics, and in the Real school chiefly by the teaching of modern languages, mathematics, and natural sciences. The course of both types consists of eight years and is completed by the maturity examination. Students may enrol after having successfully passed the four elementary grades.

The law defines the right of establishing secondary schools, as in the case of elementary schools, in an unusually liberal spirit. Secondary schools may be founded by any legal body or person—the State, any citizen of any nationality, any community, denomination, or religious community—provided the requirements of the law are fulfilled and subject to State supervision as defined in the law. The laws of 1868 and 1883 gave full liberty

to denominations as to which language they would select for schools supported by them. This right was enjoyed in practice by the various denominations, which at the same time represented certain nationalities as well. At the cataclysmic dissolution of the old kingdom there were, in the school year of 1917-1918, altogether five Roumanian, one Roumanian-Hungarian, one Italian, one Italian-Hungarian, one Serbian, and nine German, secondary schools. Formerly there had been more non-Hungarian-speaking secondary schools, but we may attribute it to natural progress that the various nationalities voluntarily adapted themselves to the language of the Hungarian race, which had for more than a thousand years been a self-governing State and as such had received them as immigrants.

The significance of the Act of 1883 lies in part in the fact that it assured a unified progress in national secondary education, giving force to the conclusive power of the State over schools out of which comes the leading social stratum of the nation, the intelligent class. It was to this end that the two *Rationes* worked, but without success. Hungarian secondary education continued to exist in two different groups, in the Catholic or so-called "royal" secondary schools on the one hand and in non-Catholic secondary schools on the other. The inner life, organization, and curriculum of Catholic Gymnasiums were alike, because these were determined in the name of the king by the government which had power over them in every respect. Over non-Catholic secondary schools the king, however, had power of supreme supervision (*suprema inspectio*) but, as a matter of fact, these Protestant schools regulated their own organization and system, independent of the government. For this very reason these developed diverse and unique individual characteristics. When, after the reconciliation of king and nation in 1867, the idea of a unified national Hungarian State had been realized, the need arose very naturally of bringing all secondary education under one unified scholastic system without slighting the autonomy of the Protestants. The Act of 1883 very fortunately gave assurance of this unity by stipulating that, while it recognized the right of denominations to determine the curriculum, plan of instruction, and textbooks in schools maintained by them, it nevertheless added that the amount taught in denominational secondary schools could not be less than the amount

embraced by schools under the supervision and direct control of the Minister of Education. The curriculum of the latter schools was required of denominational secondary schools as a minimum. This measure thus ensured a unity for the secondary schools of the country and yet provided ample room for freedom, change, historic traditions, local circumstances, and specific denominational aims. Furthermore, it was this same unified spirit that was the aim of another stipulation, according to which the Hungarian language and Hungarian literature were to be taught in all secondary schools, in non-Hungarian schools as well, and also only Hungarian citizens having first obtained a diploma from a national examination board were eligible to teach in Hungarian secondary schools.

The law, moreover, provided for the necessary unity of the Hungarian secondary schools in still another way, namely, by State supervision and control, which aims at the sanctioning of the above measures. From this point of view the secondary schools of the country fall into three groups—those under State control, those under State guidance, and those under State supervision. To the first group belong the so-called State secondary schools, which are maintained by the State treasury, and the royal Catholic secondary schools, which are maintained by the Catholic School Fund. Over both types of schools the State exercises an absolute right of free action. The second group is composed of schools maintained by authorized bodies, communities, societies, and individuals and of certain endowed secondary schools. These stand under the direction of the States; that is, in matters of pedagogy they are obliged to conform to the State requirements, though in other matters they can act independently within prescribed limits of State supervision. Only the supervision of the State is applied to the third group, the secondary schools of the autonomous denominations (Lutheran, Reformed, Unitarian, Greek-Orthodox), the autonomy of which had already been recognized by the laws of 1790 and 1868. This right was confirmed by the act of 1883. The Ministry of Education exercises supreme supervision over these autonomous secondary schools through its annually appointed representatives. According to the law the State granted aid to autonomous denominational schools; in such State-aided schools, however, the same curriculum was to be followed as that used by secondary schools

which stand under the control and direct guidance of the State. The result of this arrangement was that within a decade all secondary schools in Hungary taught in conformity with one and the same curriculum, since all the autonomous denominational secondary schools took advantage of the opportunity for State aid.

The numbers of Hungarian secondary schools increased rapidly, because more and more of the people began to aspire to intellectual careers, a *sine qua non* of which was a secondary school education. The State was gradually coming to the fore among the school supporters.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

In the period following the reconciliation of King and nation in 1867 the higher institutions also began to develop greatly. In 1872 the Hungarian Parliament established the University of Kolozsvár with Faculties of Law and Political Science, Medicine, Philosophy, Languages and History, Mathematics, and Natural Sciences. In 1906 this university already had 2,410 students. The Royal Joseph Technical School was transformed in 1872 into a technical university, which set out upon such progress that its building, erected in the eighties, proved inadequate, and it was supplanted in 1909 by magnificent buildings. The idea of a new university rapidly gained favor and finally in 1912 Parliament at the same time established two of them, one in Pozsony and another in Debrecen. Parallel with the development of the universities, the other schools also expanded their equipment and increased their faculties. This expansion took place in the case of the Academy of Mining and Forestry, the Academy of Veterinary Sciences, the Academy of Agriculture, the Academy of Commerce, the Academy of Fine Arts, the Academy of Music, and the Academy of Dramatic Art. The number of university and academy students advanced by leaps and bounds, especially beginning with 1890; thus from 4,955 in 1866 the number rose to 10,567 in 1900 and 14,575 in 1913. This number decreased during the Great War, but in 1919, after the return of the younger generation from the Front, it rose again to 18,449. Since 1895 women have been admitted to the Faculties of Medicine and Philosophy of the universities; from six women in 1897 the enrolment increased to 1,189 in 1917.

EDUCATIONAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE DISMEMBERMENT
OF HUNGARY

This splendid progress of Hungarian education was arrested by the Great War and by the consequent Trianon Treaty. This treaty deprived the nation of nearly three-fourths of its thousand-year-old territory, took away almost two-thirds of her population, and subjected approximately four million Magyars to the rule of alien peoples. The treaties following the great cataclysm did not dismember any nation so cruelly as Hungary, in spite of the fact that the single representative of the Hungarian nation in the Council of the Crown, Count Stephen Tisza, strenuously opposed the declaration of war. Let a few cold statistical facts here throw light upon the terrible cultural loss of the Magyar race. Of the 2,417 kindergartens in old Hungary, 949 remained in dismembered Hungary; of 17,648 elementary schools, 11,213 were taken away and 6,435 remained; in old Hungary there were 568 middle schools; of this number 303 fell to the dismembered parts and 265 remained. This treaty forced upon the Hungarians cut off 4 out of 9 institutions for the training of kindergarten teachers, 34 out of 52 normal schools for men, and 19 out of 42 normal schools for women. Thirty-three academies of commerce were taken away, while Hungary retained 33. The loss of secondary schools for boys is amazing. Out of 185 Gymnasiums 99 were taken and 86 left; out of 37 Real schools 21 were lost and 16 remained. Of 43 secondary schools for girls 25 remained within the present frontiers. In considering these losses we must also take into account that 82.6 per cent of students attending secondary schools spoke Hungarian as their mother tongue. The University of Kolozsvár, almost half a century old and extraordinarily developed and equipped, was taken by the Roumanians two years before the conclusion of the Treaty, and the professors were expelled from that pure Hungarian capital of Transylvania. The Czechs treated the recently founded University of Pozsony in the same way. Members of the ancient Academy of Mining and Forestry at Selmec were forced to flee. The splendidly equipped academies of agriculture at Kassa and Kolozsvár fell victims to the conquerors. In addition the law academies at Kassa, Nagyvarad, Eperjes, and Máramarossziget had to be sacrificed.

HUNGARIAN EDUCATIONAL POLICY AFTER TRIANON

As soon as the nation had recovered from this terrible blow, it was precisely in the field of culture that it first of all endeavoured to regenerate itself and make way for a better future. Count Kuno Klebelsberg, Minister of Education since 1922, initiated a brilliant new epoch in the educational policy of the Hungarian nation. He initiated a radical reform of all branches of education. The nation's strong will for culture has, in spite of the economic losses, established one new cultural institution after another or expanded the work of old institutions, overcome their shortcomings, and breathed a new spirit into them. One of the chief endeavours of this new policy is to advance the education of children scattered throughout the great Hungarian Lowlands (*Alföld*). The Act of 1926 concerning the foundation and maintenance of schools in the interests of the agricultural class will soon make it possible, through the building of two thousand new classrooms, for the children of people living in scattered communities to obtain the elements of education of which their parents were deprived because of the lack of schools. The law regarding middle schools provides a middle school of four grades for every community of 5,000 inhabitants. Immediately after the dismemberment of Hungary there remained only 240 middle schools; today there are 412. The institution of an energetic program for the extra-mural education of the people and the founding of more than 1,500 people's libraries aim to raise the cultural level of the agricultural and industrial adult population and to increase their capacity for agricultural and industrial competition. The chief underlying principle of the modern Hungarian educational policy is that cultural democracy is the surest foundation of a sound political democracy. The more cultured the broad base of the social pyramid, the more secure is the social structure, the more extensive and intensive is production, the more prosperous is living, while the fear of revolutionary outbreaks on the part of the masses is lessened. Intensive and extensive public education is real, active democracy—not such as is exhausted in empty slogans.

The new law regarding secondary schools (1924) adds the Realgymnasium to the Gymnasium and Real schools, making it possible to obtain the benefits of modern culture in an increased

measure. In line with this is the law regulating the training of teachers for secondary schools. The sound development of secondary schools for girls may be expected also from the Act of 1926 on secondary schools and colleges for girls.

The spirit of sacrifice of the nation is especially inspiring in the field of university and academy education. The Act of 1921 set up the exiled University of Pozsony at Pécs and again established the University of Kolozsvár, which was ousted by the Roumanians, providing them with new buildings and equipment. The extensive building program of the University of Debrecen, which was begun during the War, is now nearing completion.

During her history of a thousand years Hungary has always been in close contact with Western European centres of culture; her students ever since the Middle Ages have visited French, German, Italian, Swiss, Dutch, and other universities in great numbers. That this tradition is to be maintained is now ensured very effectively by the Act of 1927, which, by the endowment of many fellowships and through the establishment of *Collegia Hungarica*, enables the competent and gifted of the modern generation of scholars to increase their knowledge in the large metropolitan cities of Western Europe and to make direct contacts with European scholars.

The energetic promotion of the matter of Hungarian higher education and fellowships, which demanded the greatest material sacrifice on the part of the nation, is justified chiefly by the consideration that it is the universities and academies which are called upon to train for the nation as many leading specialists as possible. The rays of culture always come from above, from the universities to the secondary schools, and from the secondary to the elementary schools.

Entirely new blood has been infused also into the life of the great Hungarian collections (National Museum, Museum of Fine Arts, Museum of Industrial Arts, National Record Office, etc.), the Act of 1922 having amalgamated them after the model of a university into an autonomous National Association of Museums. The old Astronomical Observatory at Ogyalla having been lost, a new one has been erected and equipped on the Sváb Hill near Budapest. For the purpose of intensive research in biology a biological research station has been set up at Tihany on the shore of Lake Balaton.

The completely disarmed and incapacitated Hungarian nation has to rely chiefly on the power of the intellect. It is in the increased advancement and deepening of her culture that she seeks to find the possibility and the firm ground upon which to regain her old freedom and strength.

THE CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

The Ministry

The administration and direction of religious and educational matters is in the hands of the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction. This Ministry prepares and executes laws referring to the educational organization. It has exclusive rights over State schools, exercises higher administrative functions over parish, endowed, associational, and private schools, and has the right of supreme supervision over denominational schools in proportion to their autonomy and to the State aid granted them.

In the matter of central administration the Minister is assisted by two Secretaries of State. The Ministry has various departments for: (a) Religious affairs; (b) art and music; (c) universities and other higher institutions of learning, collections and museums, institutes of research and educational policy; (d) secondary schools; (e) commercial, normal, middle, and agricultural schools; (f) industrial schools and institutions for the weak-minded; (g) the organization of kindergarten and elementary education and affairs relating to supervision and adult education; (h) kindergarten and elementary schools; (i) pensions; (j) financial administration of public education funds and real estate; (k) economic administration of public funds; (l) technical affairs; and (m) physical training.

The National Council of Education

The task of the National Council of Education, with headquarters at Budapest, is to provide, either upon the request of the Minister or on its own initiative, opinions and resolutions with reference to public instruction. Its province extends over all questions of principle bearing upon schools within the jurisdiction of the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction. Matters of school administration belong to its sphere only in so far as they relate to the criticism, modification, and correction of

the supervision of schools. Its chairman is the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction and it is composed of a co-chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, twelve councillors, and at least fifty ordinary members. The members of the Council are appointed from teachers and professors under the jurisdiction of the Minister and from individuals specifically engaged in scientific and educational work.

The National Council of Industrial and Commercial Education

The task of this Council, with headquarters at Budapest, is to provide both the Minister of Commerce and the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, either upon special request or upon its own initiative, with opinions and resolutions in regard to questions of industrial and commercial education. Its chief duties are to prepare general programs bearing upon the didactic or practical phases of industrial and commercial education, to pass resolutions for the establishment of new industrial and commercial schools and the development of existing ones, to participate with school inspectors in the supervision of schools, and to criticize the materials of instruction.

The Committee on Textbooks

From the time of the foundation of the system of State education (1777) until the beginning of the period of absolutism (1849) all State—that is, Catholic—elementary, secondary, and higher schools were provided with textbooks by the Royal Hungarian University Press upon the basis of a privilege granted by Maria Theresa. Protestant denominations took care of their own textbooks through their individual presses; yet, because of a general censorship of textbooks, even these were not free from State supervision.

During the period of absolutism (1849-1860) the independence and privileges of the University Press were suspended, but following the restoration of constitutional life, it endeavoured to supply the elementary and middle schools first with textbooks. A majority of the higher institutions during this period obtained liberty in the matter of textbooks, while from the middle of the past century some of the larger publishing houses of the capital began to supply textbooks for secondary schools. Today six big publishing concerns provide the textbooks for

elementary and secondary schools. Moreover, smaller private concerns both in the capital and in the provinces contribute to this end in a rather minor way.

The making of textbooks subject to the permission of the State originated with the *Organisations-Entwurf*. This system was taken over in 1868 by the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction. For almost a quarter of a century the reviewing of textbooks was in the hands of the National Council of Education. In 1925 the Committee on Textbooks was instituted with a membership of twelve *rapporteurs*, the delegated representative of the Ministry, a chairman, and a manager. This committee meets from time to time when convened by the chairman. Texts submitted for approval must be sent in typewritten form. These are examined first by a selected critic and afterwards by one of the *rapporteurs* of the committee. Final approval is given upon recommendation by the Committee and the determination of the price of the book. Besides criticizing the regular textbooks, the Committee has also been entrusted with the general examination of all textbooks previously approved. In general, its sphere extends over the care of all textbook matters. Its chief object is to limit the over-production of textbooks, to promote their continuous correction and perfection, and to raise the standard of their make-up. The result of these endeavours is already perceptible in the field of textbook literature.

The National Council on Children's Literature

The tasks of this Council, with headquarters in Budapest, are: (1) To supervise closely all children's books from a moral and patriotic point of view, to direct the preparation of literary productions for young people, to keep in contact with the literary needs of young people's organizations, to determine the catalogue of books to be used in children's libraries, and to supervise these libraries; (2) to make proposals for deepening the relationship between parents and school children and proposals in all matters referred to it for investigation by the Ministry of Education.

PART ONE

PUBLIC EDUCATION

I. KINDERGARTENS

HISTORICAL REVIEW

The beginning of Hungarian kindergartens is connected with the name of Countess Theresa Brunsvick (1775-1868). This widely travelled, cultured, and intelligent lady (Beethoven's favorite student and his "immortal lover") in 1808 spent six weeks in Yverdon, Switzerland, at the home of Pestalozzi, who made a deep impression upon her. During her stay at Yverdon she became acquainted with public education, for which her soul had long thirsted. She decided to give up selfishly educating herself alone and to dedicate herself to the education of the people. She desired to increase her nation's number of worthy men by saving and educating the little ones. At home, however, she was regarded as a dreamer. Misunderstanding and malice raised great obstacles in her way, but she staunchly persevered in her purpose. "If I am crucified," she wrote in her diary, "I shall yet proclaim that we need schools for small children." The book of Samuel Wilderspin concerning the education of little children, issued in 1823, happened to fall into her hands, and in this book she found the systemization and practical materialization of all the ideas she had received under the influence of Pestalozzi. She travelled to England, conferred with Wilderspin, and studied his school for little children at Spitalfields. Upon her return she asked permission to start a kindergarten, but was refused. Making use of her connections at the court of the Palatine, she finally materialized her object and on June 1, 1828, at her home in Buda, with many prominent guests present and amidst a great celebration, she opened her kindergarten, which she called the "Garden for Angels." Within a short time many such institutions were established both

at the capital and in the country. It was through the influence of Countess Brunswick that kindergartens were first established at Vienna in 1830, at München in 1833, and at Augsburg in 1834.

The greatest sacrifice for the maintenance of the first schools was made by Theresa Brunswick. Among the founders of the institutions were some of the most prominent men and women of the country, beginning with the first duchess of the land. Among the names of the founders is also that of Edward Read, an English preacher, who spent 1828 in Hungary and advised Brunswick in a letter written from London in 1830 among other things to form a great national organization out of the many small and inactive societies, which were composed of the founders. As a result of unfavourable circumstances, such an organization did not come into being until the year 1836, under the title of *The Society for the Propagation of Kindergartens in Hungary*, in the committee of which some of the most eminent leaders of the country were included, among them Louis Kossuth.

As a result of the work of this society there were already eighty-nine kindergartens by 1847. During the ministry of Baron Eötvös there was talk of regulating kindergarten work by law in connection with public education. The storm of the war of independence and the subsequent period of absolutism not only killed this enthusiasm but even checked the splendid development of the kindergartens. In ten years the eighty-nine institutions were reduced to fifty-two. It was only after 1860 that kindergartens began to take on new life, but really vital activity was initiated only after the reconciliation of 1867, when other organizations also took up the work of the propagation society. In 1876 the State also joined the ranks of the supporters of kindergartens and established more and more kindergartens from this time on—and especially since 1891, when the establishment of kindergartens in communities that could not support one themselves was made the legal duty of the State. As from 1880 two other types of schools were formed for the care of children, namely, the *permanent day nursery* and the *summer day nursery*. The summer day nursery was designed to take care of the children of farmers during the agricultural season (April to October).

LAW CONCERNING KINDERGARTENS AND THE MODERN ORGANIZATION
OF KINDERGARTENS

The regulation of kindergartens by law was effected in 1891. The law was supported by the following motivation: (1) children receiving the physical and mental training of kindergartens can more easily overcome the difficulties of the elementary school; and in districts where there are racial minorities, kindergartens enable children to learn the State language at an early age; (2) the high death rate of children is due in part to the fact that children are without supervision and in case of sickness do not receive proper medical attention; (3) children not under supervision cause great damage by building fires and these losses can be checked only by placing children under supervision.

According to the law, the object of the kindergarten is to protect children between the ages of three and six from dangers during the absence of parents and to aid their physical, moral, and mental growth by training them to be orderly and clean and by developing their skill, understanding, and character according to their age. There is no place for school instruction in the kindergarten.

The law provides for kindergartens, permanent day nurseries, and summer day nurseries. It makes attendance at one of these schools compulsory for all such children as are not constantly under supervision. A fine is imposed upon all who do not conform to the requirements. Ill or feeble-minded children may not attend kindergartens.

The duty of maintaining kindergartens is incumbent upon communities. The State, denominations, legal bodies, or private individuals also have the right to maintain kindergartens. The latter, however, must obtain the permission of the royal superintendent. Kindergartens must be organized and maintained (a) by every borough with autonomous rights, (b) by every county seat, and (c) by every rural community in which the total amount paid under direct State taxes exceeds 30,000 crowns, provided there is no kindergarten, or if there are forty children for whom there is no room in the existing kindergartens. A permanent day nursery must be established by every country parish community in which the amount paid under the head of direct State taxes ranges from 20,000 to 30,000 crowns and which

happens to have at least forty children under school age who are not under supervision. A summer day nursery must be established by every rural community in which the direct State tax does not exceed 20,000 crowns and in which there are at least fifteen children not under supervision.

Where no other kindergartens exist, those maintained by denominations, legal bodies, or private individuals must admit children, irrespective of denomination or mother tongue.

Only such persons may be employed in kindergartens as possess a qualifying diploma. Kindergarten teachers are employed for life and can be removed from their positions only by legal disciplinary procedure. The employees of State institutions are appointed by the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction and those of rural communities are elected by the kindergarten supervising committee of the parish, which also employs the nurses for the day nurseries.

THE SPHERE OF WORK OF KINDERGARTENS

The law stipulates that the curriculum of kindergartens must include the following items: prayers, exercises in speaking and comprehension, songs, play, handwork, and physical training. In the exercises in speaking and comprehension the teacher chats with the children about subjects within the sphere of their perception and interest; the children learn rhymes and sayings; and finally, they listen to stories. Play embraces the various social and creative games. In handwork the children are given a chance to draw and color and make articles out of different materials, such as sand, clay, wood, stone, paper, etc.

The influence of Froebel, which appeared toward the sixties of last century, may be strongly felt upon both the inner life of kindergartens and upon the laws. As a result kindergarten education became divided between two tendencies. The first was marked by the traditions of the first schools and the second, by Froebel's educational system. The struggle between the two tendencies came to an end in the nineties; and a so-called Hungarian tendency, impregnated with Froebel's ideas, triumphed. The ministerial Instructions which accompanied the law, while they included many of Froebel's ideas in the program of the kindergarten, in general emphasized an education of a nationalistic trend. The finest specimens of child-poetry, gathered either

from the life of the people or from the works of poets, are employed. Teachers collect the games of Hungarian children and adapt them to the use of kindergartens. The results of modern child study and the endeavours of Montessori, particularly, make themselves felt upon Hungarian kindergartens, which are trying to develop their peculiar Hungarian characteristics more fully.

THE AUTHORITIES OF KINDERGARTENS

The local authority over kindergartens is the supervising committee. This consists of five members, and may include women, also, although the number of women may not exceed that of men. The supervising committee for state kindergartens is appointed by the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction. If a community or denomination maintains an elementary school also, the functions of the supervising committee are performed by the school council with addition of women members. The local medical officer is an *ex-officio* member of the committee. The functions of the committee are: (a) election of teachers for community kindergartens and supervisors for permanent and summer nurseries; (b) visitation of schools and control of work; (c) enforcement of compulsory attendance; and (d) care of the material needs of the school and supervision of the building, equipment, and property. The functions of denominational committees are determined by the respective denominational authorities. State supervision of all kindergartens is carried on by the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction through royal superintendents.

II. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

SCHOOL SUPPORT

The Act of 1868 distinguishes two groups of school support—first, the parish; second, the state, denominations, associations, and individuals, the first group being required, and the second entitled, to maintain schools.

Community Schools

Where there are at least thirty children of school age for whom there is no school and whose parents decline the use of the denominational school, the community is obliged to establish an

elementary school. The community must provide the salaries of teachers, school building, equipment, and other material needs. Schools are maintained by community funds, school fees, and community tax; if necessary, state aid may be asked for. The parish school fund consists of a fixed percentage of the income from property set aside by the community to be used for school purposes.

Rural Schools

The population of the Lowland for the most part lives not in compact villages but in scattered farms, the result being that their children have always received an inferior education. This accounts largely for the fact that 15 per cent of Hungary's population has been illiterate. Count Kuno Klebelsberg aims to bring this condition to an end as soon as possible by the law of 1926, which deals with the establishment and maintenance of schools in the interests of the farmer class and constitutes the starting point of an extensive building program. The Hungarian educational policy regards as its chief task the maintenance and strengthening of the cultural supremacy of the Hungarian nation over its Balkan neighbours. This is the more necessary in view of the nation's endeavour to put its constitution upon a democratic basis, because political democracy can be sound only when it is preceded and ensured by educational democracy.

According to the Act of 1926, "the Hungarian nation bears testimony to its dauntless faith in the future and its vitality by building schools for the agricultural class, especially those of the Lowland farms." To realize this end, the government may, *ex officio*, order elementary schools to be established wherever twenty families or thirty children of schooling age reside within an area of about three miles, provided there is no school already in existence. Accordingly, the law creates a new category of school supporters when it declares that interested landowners must establish such rural (homestead) schools. This act was based on the argument that if a landowner controls a large share of the country's land he should also share the educational burdens. An adequate building and property are to be provided, together with a refectory, a rest room, and transportation for children living at great distances. In case the interested land-

owners or parish cannot cover all of the expenses, the State will grant aid or loans for covering building expenses. The complete equipment of the school is to be provided by the interested supporters.

Accordingly, the building of hundreds of rural (homestead) schools has been started. Down to the end of last year, 5,000 schoolhouses, including classrooms and teachers' homes, had been put into use. The execution of the enormous program of 8,562 buildings will cost about 100,000,000 Pengö, a considerable proportion of this sum having to be advanced by the State.

Denominational Schools

As in other countries of Europe, elementary schools at one time were almost exclusively of a denominational nature. The Act of 1868 assigned special importance to communities as factors of popular education, but this proved of no avail, for a great part of the elementary schools remained in the hands of denominations, which, through great sacrifice and aided by the State, have striven to maintain and develop their schools and to satisfy the requirements of the law.

State Schools

The Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction, on the basis of the Act of 1868, provided for the establishment of elementary schools only where those entitled or obliged (denominations and parishes) did not do so, either because of lack of funds or because they did not wish to conform to the requirements of the State. All such schools established by the State became strongholds of national ideals and modern education. In this way State elementary schools increased parallel with the progress of popular education and they served as model schools, carrying out the intentions of the law, and were a good influence, particularly in those places which the authority of the government could not reach direct. Since the World War, the rôle of the historical school supporters—the denominations and communities—has again increased in importance.

REQUIREMENTS INCIDENTAL TO THE MAINTENANCE OF SCHOOLS

The legal requirements incidental to the maintenance of schools in whole and in part are the same for all. The law uni-

formly demands (*a*) that the subjects taught in the school be in conformity with the state curriculum established by law; (*b*) that school buildings and classrooms conform to certain standards; (*c*) that classrooms be provided with furniture and equipment; (*d*) that the maximum of pupils in one room be 60; (*e*) that girls and boys receive separate instruction; (*f*) that teachers hold qualifications prescribed by law; (*g*) that a definite salary be provided for teachers; (*h*) that teachers' pensions be regulated; (*i*) that school hours conform to requirements; (*j*) that local school supervision be organized.

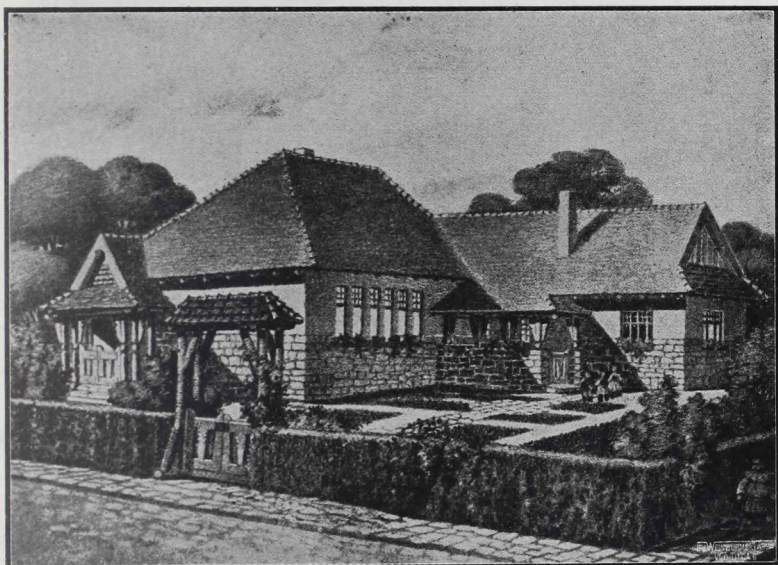
BUILDINGS

The matter of buildings is dealt with in the ministerial ordinance of 1897, giving model plans and suggestions, and in the Act of 1907. Ever since the appearance of the model plans, school building in Hungary has made remarkable progress. Not only do the big cities have fine buildings, which meet the requirements of modern pedagogy and hygiene, but altogether satisfactory school buildings may be found throughout the country, even in small villages. Our finest school buildings were erected in communities along the border; and these have been lost as a result of the Trianon Treaty.

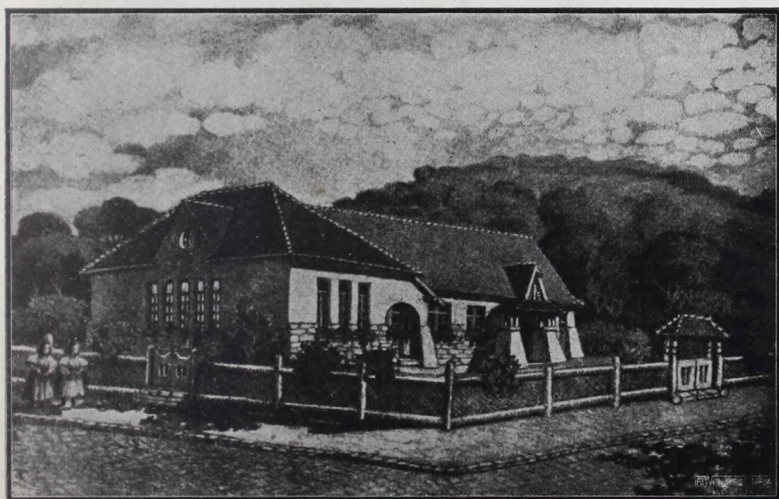
ORGANIZATION AND CURRICULUM

The Act of 1921 stipulates that parents or guardians must provide every child with an elementary education for nine years after the completion of his or her sixth birthday—six in the elementary school and three in the continuation school. During this period church attendance on Sundays and holidays is obligatory. Parents have a right to enrol their children in any kind of school, even outside of their place of residence.

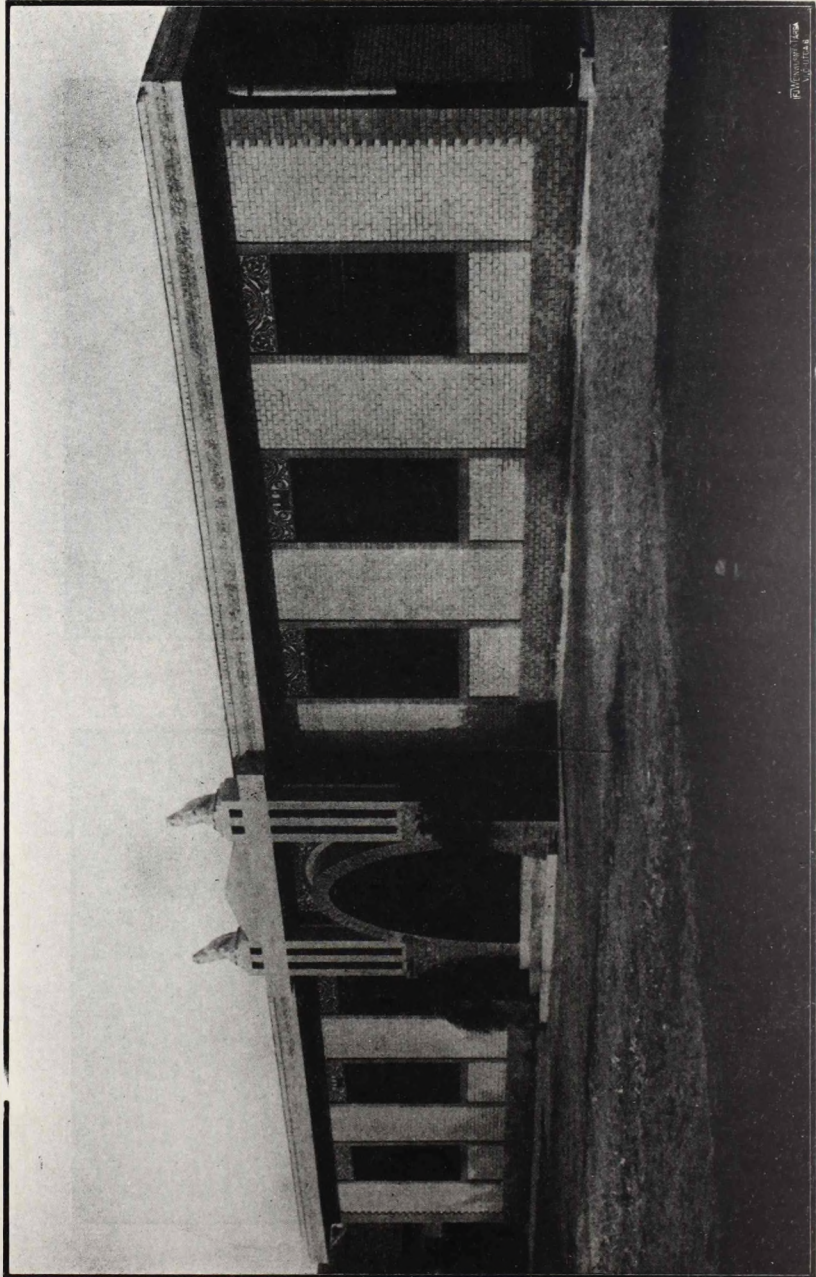
The school year averages 10 months in length, but for serious reasons may officially be shortened by two months at the most. The number of school days is determined by the Ministry as follows: 227 days in the elementary schools (reduced to 195 in agricultural districts), 60 half days in the continuation schools, and 80 half days in the agricultural schools. Children may be exempt from school attendance, provided that they receive satisfactory instruction at home or are mentally or physically defective or that their health or safety would be endangered by school



DAY NURSERY AND LIVING QUARTERS FOR THE NURSE



DAY NURSERY WITH PLAY ROOM AND LIVING QUARTERS



FOUR-ROOM ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN DUNAHARASZTI

attendance. Those having any organic defect which hinders them in their studies, those suffering from some contagious disease, those who are mentally diseased or feeble-minded, and such as would endanger the morals of other children, may be excluded from school. Failure to enrol children in school incurs the penalty of the law.

The law differentiates two courses of study in elementary schools—the six-year day school and the three-year continuation school. In community and State elementary schools both courses are compulsory, but denominational schools are not compelled to maintain continuation courses. Only those schools are considered complete elementary public schools which include both types. In places where various kinds of public schools are located and the continuation school is not embraced by all, the State is required to provide a continuation course.

Day Schools

The elementary day school may have one or more teachers; accordingly, schools fall into the two types of graded or ungraded schools. Separate schools for boys and for girls are conducted only in places where the number of the children of school age permits a completely divided school with at least four teachers. There are relatively few non-coeducational schools in the country, inasmuch as small communities are in the majority. At present 93 per cent of the elementary public schools are coeducational.

Prescribed Subjects and Time-Schedules

Subjects required in all elementary schools are as follows: (1) religion, (2) Hungarian language, (3) arithmetic and geometry, (4) geography, (5) history, (6) natural sciences and home economics, (7) drawing, (8) music, (9) handwork, (10) physical training.

The time-schedule for graded and ungraded schools, including also the time-schedule of partly graded schools, is given in the table on the following page.

Curriculum and Instruction

The Minister of Education issued the new curriculum for elementary schools in May, 1925. The curriculum is compulsory

TIME-SCHEDULE

SUBJECT	GRADED SCHOOL						UNGRADED SCHOOL					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1. Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2. Hungarian	10	10	10	9	7	7	6	6	6	6	3½	3½
3. Arithmetic; geometry	5	5	5	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2
4. Geography	2	2	2	2	1
5. History	3	2	2	1
6. Natural sciences and home economics	2	2	4	5	2	..	4	..
7. Drawing	1	1	1	2	2	..	1	2	..	2	..
8. Music	1	1	1	2	2	2	..	1	1	1	2	..
9. Handwork	1	1	1	2	2	..	1	1	..	2	..
10. Physical training	2	2	2	2	2	2	..	2	..	2	2	..
Total	20	22	24	26	30	30	14	16	19	21	22½	21½
							25		30		30	

for State, community, private, and Jewish schools. Other denominational schools prepare their own curricula, with due regard for the State curriculum. This curriculum defines the objective of the elementary school thus: "The objective of the elementary school is to prepare such citizens for the country as will be religious, moral, intelligent, and self-conscious patriots, who possess the fundamental elements of education and are able to make use of their knowledge in daily life." Each subject is adjusted to this general objective.

1. Religious and ethical instruction in State and community schools is provided for by the respective denominations, which designate its object and content.

2. The objective of instruction in the Hungarian language is to develop the child's instinct of expression so that he can freely express his thoughts and emotions in both speech and writing; to develop an understanding of the living word and of reading matter so that the child may comprehend the ideas of Hungarian writers and poets in works that correspond to his mental age, and may gain a sense of appreciation and enjoyment of fine literature; to connect home and school life and link the child with national life; to instil a love for the home, country, race, and nation and safeguard the elements of a national culture based upon religious and moral foundations.

The course of study is divided into the following groups: (a)

exercises in speaking and comprehension; (b) reading; (c) writing; (d) composition; (e) spelling and grammar. It is evident from this grouping that living speech is most important and must be used above all in the education of the people. Where a teacher has more time and opportunity, reading and writing, also, can be developed to an extent making for the independent understanding of the ideas of others and for the intelligent expression of the pupil's own ideas. Explanations of the language must take only the third place in importance, and that only to the extent necessary for the mastery of correct spelling. Abstract grammatical instruction is beyond the scope of the elementary school.

3. The aim of instruction in arithmetic is to acquaint children with the common calculations and measurements which are in use in daily life and to train them to disciplined and systematic thinking.

The course of study embraces the teaching of the four fundamental operations with numbers according to the number group system, distributed among the grades according to the difficulty of the calculations—for instance, in the first year the easier calculations in the number space from 1 to 20; in the second year, to 100; in the third year, to 1,000; in the fourth year, to 1,000,000; in the fifth year, whole numbers and decimals; in the sixth year, whole numbers with common fractions and decimals, percentage, and interest. Written exercises are begun only in the fourth year. Geometry in the first year includes simple measurements; in the second year, the square and primary conceptions; in the third year, the rectangle and measurements of area; in the fourth year, the cube and computation of dimensions; in the fifth year, the circle, its circumference and area, and simple constructions; in the sixth year, triangles and computations of volume.

4. The purpose of instruction in geography is to secure acquaintance with Hungary, other countries, the continents, and the earth; inculcation of a love for the pupil's native country and nation, and awakening of a national consciousness.

The course of study in the fourth year, after a preparation in the second and third years by relevant exercises in speech and comprehension, embraces a comprehensive study of the geographical divisions of the country, the dismembered territories,

the Hungarian kingdom, and a general view of Europe; in the fifth year, the general geography and counties of Hungary, the countries of Europe, continents, and oceans; in the sixth year, the economic geography of Hungary, the economic relations of European and other countries to Hungary, the earth, and other spheres.

5. The purpose of instruction in history is to acquaint the pupils with the history of the Hungarian nation in connection with the main events of general history and to give them a knowledge of the Hungarian constitution; to instil a national consciousness, a love of country, and respect for the past; to enforce the pupils' faith in the vitality of the nation and the guidance of Divine Providence; through an acquaintance with civic life and the most important rights and duties of a citizen to develop respect for law and an understanding of national unity.

In the fifth year the course of study embraces the nation's history from the beginning to the eighteenth century and civic matters, such as the administration of communities, taxation, laws concerning agriculture, industry and commerce, schools, records, public health, public justice, citizenship, associations, press, and denominations; in the sixth year the history of the nation after the Turkish invasion, the struggle for liberty, absolutism and the reconciliation of Nation and King, the constructive period, the World War, modern Hungary, and the old and new constitutions.

6. The purpose of instruction in natural and economic sciences is to impart a knowledge of the most important natural phenomena and laws and of their practical application in life; to acquaint pupils with the most important animals, plants, and minerals and with the relation between nature and man; to train pupils in proper observation and appropriation of the skill necessary in economic life; to instil a love for the soil and respect for work; to inculcate the principles of hygienic living in home and school and to ensure the execution of the laws relating to public hygiene.

The course of study includes (*a*) in physics and chemistry—air, water, fire, metals, deterioration, and important organic compounds in the fifth year; in the sixth year, the general characteristics of bodies, the simple laws of mechanics with reference

to solids, liquids, and gases, principal laws of heat, sound, light, and the application of magnetism and electricity in everyday life; (b) in natural history, economics, and home economics in the third year, the study of fruits, domestic animals, and observations in the garden; ventilation, heating and lighting the home, and cleaning clothes; in the fourth year, a study of the produce of the soil and practical work in the garden, care of linen, washing; in the fifth grade the care of the soil, trees, minerals, bees, growing and protecting trees, diet, and simple foods; in the sixth year, a comprehensive study of vegetables, grains, plants, and animals of other lands, co-operative stores, farming, production, and diet for children and the sick.

7. The aim of instruction in drawing is to develop manual skill, observation, and judgment, and the use of drawing as a medium of expression, and to stimulate and foster the sense of form and color.

Its course of study consists of exercises in line drawing, observational drawing, and decoration distributed in graded form through the grades. Playful and explanatory drawings are used in every case.

8. The purpose of musical instruction is to impart a knowledge of valuable Hungarian songs; to instil a liking for the Hungarian song, stimulate the musical sense, and cultivate the voice; to deepen the aesthetic sense, religious and patriotic feeling, and the social mind.

Its course of study from the first to the third grade consists of simple songs and from the third to the sixth year, of the reading of notes, of the study of time and rhythm, and two-part melody.

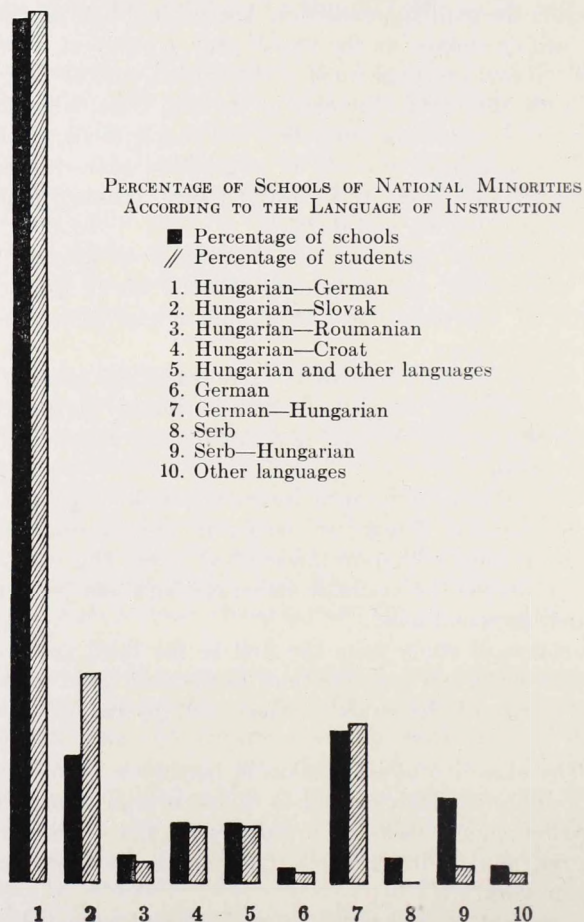
9. The objective of instruction in handwork is to satisfy the child's desire for activity and to divert it into proper channels, to develop manual skill, eye measurement, and a sense and taste for form, and to teach pupils how to do the most necessary common work.

The content of instruction in the first and second years consists of playful occupation with paper and clay; from the third year on the children are separated according to sex, the boys continuing to make useful objects out of paper and clay and the girls sewing, crocheting, and knitting.

10. The aim of physical training is to develop the health,

strength, and skill of the child and to train him in self-discipline, self-control, and respect for others.

This object is accomplished by means of games, exercises, athletics, and excursions.



Curriculum of Schools Using Language of a National Minority

From the point of view of the language used in teaching, there are three types of schools for national minorities, any of which may be freely selected by the supporters of schools.

A. Schools using the minority language, where teaching of the Hungarian language is a prescribed subject, but all other subjects are taught in the mother tongue.

B. Mixed schools using Hungarian and the minority tongue, in which the minority language, natural and economic sciences, drawing, and handwork are taught in the mother tongue, and Hungarian, geography, history, and physical training must be taught in Hungarian, while arithmetic and music are taught in both languages.

C. Schools using Hungarian, in which the minority tongue is an ordinary and prescribed subject.

In 1929 these three types were divided as follows among the various national minorities:

NATIONAL MINORITY	TYPE A	TYPE B	TYPE C
1. German.....	50	118	299
2. Slovak.....	..	7	50
3. Croat.....	..	3	21
4. Serb.....	28	5	..
5. Vend.....	..	3	1
6. Bunyevase.....	18
7. Roumanian.....	..	3	7
Total.....	78	139	396

Continuation Schools

The law provides for a three-year continuation course following the six years in an elementary school for concentrating and supplementing the work of the latter school. From the point of view of national education, the continuation school is very important, for only 5 per cent of those completing the elementary school continue their studies in higher institutions; the others can be educated further only in continuation schools. Boys and girls between the ages of twelve and fifteen are particularly in need of moral guidance and instruction.

Since the World War, the schooling of children has received a significant impetus as a result of the Act of 1921; and the effect of the Act is also to be felt upon the continuation schools. In the year 1924-1925 there were 178,048 children attending general continuation schools and 98,346 attending agricultural continuation schools.

These types of schools exist throughout the country. Their curriculum is determined by law. Four hours of teaching per week are required in agricultural continuation schools during the months of September, October, April, May, and June, and seven hours during the other months. The school is divided into three grades with a preparatory class where conditions require.

The subjects fall into two groups:

a. General subjects—religion, reading, geography, history, hygiene, spelling, and grammar, arithmetic for boys and girls in all grades; natural sciences for boys and girls in the second and third grades; geometry and civics only for boys in every grade; care of babies for girls in the first and second grades.

b. Agricultural subjects in all grades—(1) For boys: I. Care of the soil, vegetation, and animal husbandry; II. Farm vegetation, cattle and horse breeding, gardening, fruit-growing, apiculture, sericulture; III. Husbandry, pig and sheep breeding, fruit-growing, forestry, apiculture, sericulture, and agricultural industries. (2) For girls: I. Gardening and growing of medicinal plants, vegetables, dairy farming, housekeeping, and needlework, sericulture; II. Gardening, poultry farming, dairy farming, housekeeping, needlework, sericulture; III. Gardening, poultry farming, pig breeding, dairy farming, housekeeping, needlework, and sericulture.

Two hours a week are to be devoted to the agricultural and the rest to the general subjects; in preparing the schedule local conditions are to be considered.

Children's Societies

Children's Societies exist in connection with public schools to train adolescent boys and girls along religious and patriotic lines and to acquaint them with practical knowledge and skill. After the War the Levente (Cavalier) Societies were formed for the purpose of physical and moral training of boys beyond school age. (See page 244).

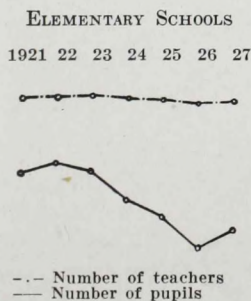
Children's Libraries

In State and parish schools every student pays a sum of sixty fillérs for the benefit of the children's library. Out of these sums have grown, in connection with every elementary school, children's libraries for which books are selected by a special com-

mittee. These libraries aim to serve the children in the day and continuation schools; the organization of libraries for adults as well is now under process of development.

TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

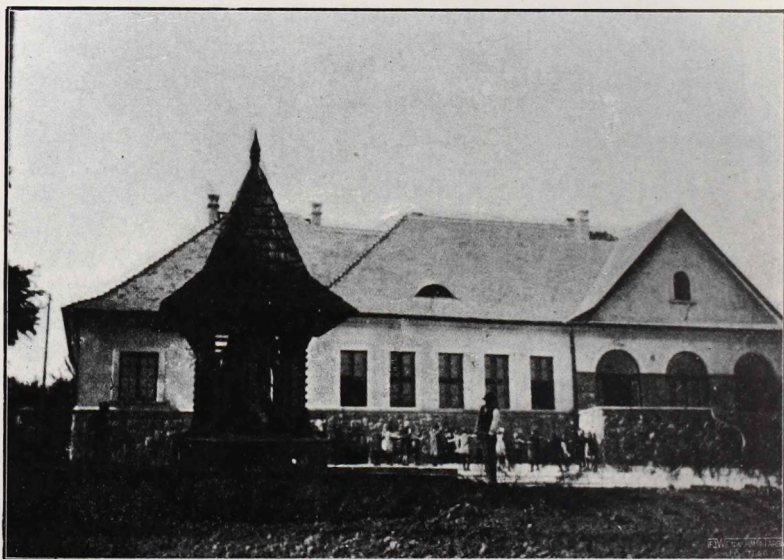
Only teachers holding normal school diplomas may teach in elementary schools. Diplomas received in foreign countries can be made valid only by "nostrification" (incorporation). The State appoints its teachers through the Ministry of Education, while communities and denominations elect their teachers through the school council. Appointments are for life and dismissals occur only for moral transgression, crime, or misdeed. In case denominational or community schools are unable to pay the salaries of their teachers, they can apply for State aid. Teachers form in every school district a Teachers' Association, which aims to promote the interests of both school and teacher. Provincial teachers maintain a home in Budapest called the Francis Joseph Teachers' House, which provides board, lodging, and supervision without cost or for a nominal sum to capable and deserving children of teachers while they are studying in the Capital.



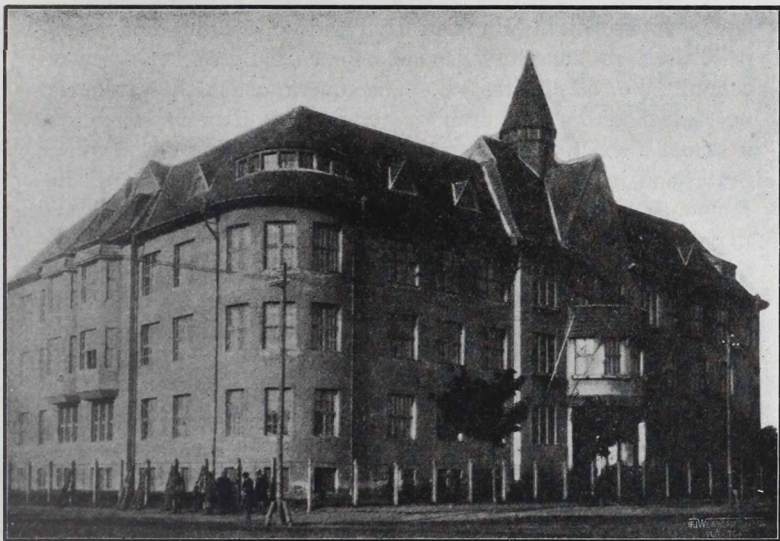
Administration and supervision of elementary schools is of three kinds—local, intermediate, and supreme. Local administration and supervision is in the hands of the community or denominational school board and of a school board for state schools. The school board and the community school board are directly subject to the royal inspector, while the denominational school board falls under denominational authority.



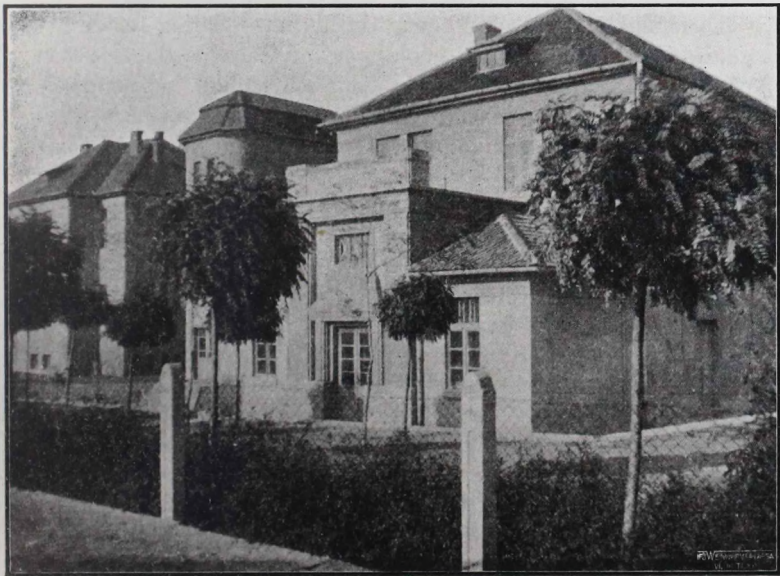
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN REMETE-KERTVÁROS



ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN SZÉPHALOM



COMMUNITY CENTRE IN DEBRECEN



SOCIAL CENTRE OF THE TOKODALTÁRÓ MINES, ALSO USED FOR PURPOSES OF
ADULT EDUCATION

The intermediate administrative and supervisory body comprise the royal superintendent and the city and county executive committee of administration. The superintendent has authority over a school district; each county (also Budapest) constitutes a school district. The inspector is the controlling officer of the State, and it is his duty to visit all schools within his jurisdiction once a year. He has administrative power in State and parish schools, but only controlling and directing power in denominational schools. His reports are made in part to the county administrative committee and to the Ministry of Education. Under his jurisdiction there is a network of assistant inspectors and clerks.

The county administrative committee is an executive body in all matters over which the inspector has authority. It is the lowest judiciary body in questions of the organization of schools, obligations, and legal status of school supporters, state subsidies for teachers' salaries, differences between the school council and teachers, and the discipline of teachers. In cases of appeal against decisions by the school board or the royal inspector, it is the higher judiciary body.

Denominations have autonomy in matters relating to the organization of schools, the appointment of teachers, the selection of textbooks, and discipline; in their curriculum, school discipline, time-schedule, school organization, and the appointment of teachers, they bear in mind the legal situation of State and community schools.

The supreme control of elementary instruction is vested in the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, who exercises the power of Supreme State supervision and ensures the development of the school system on uniform principles.

III. PUBLIC EDUCATION OUTSIDE OF SCHOOLS

ORGANIZATION

Movements for adult education outside the organized school system were started in the latter half of the nineteenth century; and they became effective in various independent directions. Their significance, however, was made manifest only during the World War. Conditions created by the World War made the reorganization of the whole matter an urgent need of the times.

Accordingly, the State undertook to reorganize it by removing all matters relating to adult education from the jurisdiction of scattered bureaus and placing them under the control of the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, thus unifying both task and method. The Ministry, furthermore, formed the National Committee for Extra-Mural Adult Education, whose task it was to study the problem, make suggestions, and take part in the matter of supervision and direction. This measure was by no means intended to shift responsibility from society to the State; the State merely desired to systematize and unify this social task in co-operation with society.

The program of adult education is under the jurisdiction of the "committees on adult education." These committees are responsible for arousing popular interest, enlisting the moral and material support of society, drawing into this work all social institutions, organizations, and individuals, and, by creating a balanced relationship among them, ensuring the systematic and harmonious functioning of the whole idea. Each committee is composed of State educational officials, the representatives of social institutions, local educational officials, and prominent individuals either appointed by the Ministry or selected by the committee.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

The principal aim of adult education outside the regular school course is to supply any existing lack in the elementary education of those past school age, to provide continued education, and, in general, to enable citizens intelligently to serve the moral and material interests of themselves and of the nation.

Adult education, therefore, draws its material from various sources; but strict attention is always paid to local conditions and needs. It has two means at its disposal—individual lectures and courses. The subjects of the lectures, which are designed chiefly to stimulate interest in study, are determined by local circumstances. Care is taken that the various lectures shall conform to a certain general theme and program. They are of one hour's duration. The courses also take their subject matter from various sources and are worked out to follow a systematic order and each to compose a unit. They may be (a) courses for illiterates, (b) elementary courses, and (c) general courses. The course for illiterates aims to teach reading and writing and,

where possible, the four fundamental operations with numbers. The total number of hours cannot be less than 60 when only reading and writing are taught or less than 80 when arithmetic is included. In a course for illiterates no more than 30 may be enrolled at one time. The elementary courses aim to review the elementary subjects on a level with the adult mind and to make up any possible deficiency. The subjects for the general courses are selected with a view to local circumstances, so that they may be of practical use and serve to supplement previous knowledge and develop the mind in general. A minimum of 60 hours constitutes a year's course.

Attendance at these courses does not serve as a substitute for regular school attendance; therefore they can be attended only by those who have passed the school age. Where circumstances allow, the men and women are separated, and appropriate courses are given for both groups. The lecturers are chosen on the basis of their acquaintance with their subjects. The lectures are informal and designed to meet the mental level of the audience; they do not exceed two and a half hours a day.

In communities where the movement has not been started, every effort is being made to stimulate interest and confidence in adult education. Entertainments and lantern-lectures are arranged to convince people of the benefits (in the way of increased production and profit and decreased labor and expense) that would be derived from a knowledge of improved methods and modern scientific methods. Exhibitions and illustrations of achievements in more advanced communities are used, and health subjects are discussed as a means of awakening an interest in the movement.

The movement is aided considerably by the financial backing of the government. Moreover, the Ministry has published a syllabus of subjects and a model schedule of work; and it has established 1,500 libraries and published textbooks for lecturers. It also provides educational films and projectoscopes.

PART TWO

SECONDARY EDUCATION

I. MIDDLE SCHOOLS (POLGÁRI ISKOLA BÜRGERSCHULE)

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS

In the school system of most nations we may find schools which give more than the minimum education of an elementary school, yet less than the education of the secondary school which prepares for higher studies—schools giving general education of a rather practical nature. The Act of 1868 proposed to establish such an institution when it provided for two types of schools to be added to the elementary school—the upper elementary school, which, after the completion of the six grades of the elementary school, consisted of a three-year course for boys and a two-year course for girls, and the middle school, which was built on the fourth grade of the elementary school and consisted of a six-year course for boys and a four-year course for girls. The former type, fashioned after the French *école primaire supérieur*, could not thrive at all and recently became entirely extinct.

The middle school on the other hand proved of value, designed as it was to meet the educational standard falling between elementary and secondary education. This type of school was originally planned to elevate the general mass of citizens to a higher level of general, more practical culture. It was with this purpose in mind that the curriculum was selected. These middle schools soon prospered and in many cases were established by communities themselves.

Since 1922 the middle schools have increased at an exceptionally rapid rate; 84 new schools were established within four years and today there are altogether 412 of them with 3,648 teachers and 90,776 pupils. Exactly to what extent the public appreciates these schools is excellently illustrated by the progress

made in Budapest; at present there are 53 middle schools with over 20,000 pupils.

No matter how rapidly the middle school grew, it was a constant disadvantage that its task was not accurately defined and its organization not definitely designated. Owing to this indefiniteness the middle school was subjected to severe criticism and could never be put into work according to the six-year plan outlined in the Act of 1868. In 1927 it was finally decided to maintain the middle school as a four-year course.

The task of the middle school, according to this new Act, is to give the pupil a practical general education in a religious, moral, and national spirit and to prepare him either directly for practical life or for the professional secondary schools. In middle schools for girls the further task of preparing intelligent women citizens is added.

Only those pupils may be enrolled in the middle schools who have properly completed the four grades of the elementary school.

The completion of the middle school entitles pupils to enter normal schools and commercial, industrial, or agricultural schools of secondary grade. Upon examination, moreover, a pupil completing a middle school may transfer to a secondary school; that is, to the fifth grade of a Gymnasium, Realgymnasium, or a Real school. The holder of a certificate from the fourth grade of the middle school is eligible to certain posts in the civil service. Thus, some minor positions in the post office or with the railroad can be filled only with persons holding a certificate from a middle school.

MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS

Teachers for middle schools are trained in special normal schools and obtain their certificates from a special examination board.

In every middle school for boys of four grades there are at least six teachers besides a religious instructor and teachers of special subjects; in schools for girls there are at least five teachers. The number of regular teachers, besides the principal, must never be less than the number of grades. Principals themselves must teach at least four and no more than 12 periods per week and teachers not more than 22, excluding occasional substitutions.

CURRICULUM OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS FOR BOYS

The number of periods, excluding physical training in the first and second grades, is 27 and in the third and fourth grades, 28. The following time-schedule is now in force:

SUBJECT	GRADE				
	I	II	III	IV	TOTAL
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	8
Hungarian.....	5	4	4	3	16
German.....	3	3	3	3	12
History.....	..	2	3	3	8
Geography.....	3	2	3	2	10
Arithmetic and geometry.....	4	4	4	2	14
Bookkeeping.....	1	1
Botany and zoology.....	3	3	6
Mineralogy and chemistry.....	3	3
Physics.....	3	..	3
Physiology and hygiene.....	2	2
Economics and civics.....	2	2
Agriculture and manual training.....	1	1	1	1	4
Music.....	1	1	1	1	4
Drawing.....	3	3	3	2	11
Physical training.....	3	3	2	2	10
Handwork.....	2	2	1	1	6
Total.....	30	30	30	30	120

The courses of study of the various subjects may be outlined briefly as follows:

1. Hungarian. Aim: (a) Ability of fluent expression in speech and writing; (b) knowledge of the most important rules of the Hungarian language and style; (c) introduction to Hungarian literature. Course of study: Selections from prose and poetry, grammar, composition, poetics, and rhetoric successively in the four grades, and a study of the history of Hungarian literature on the basis of readings.

2. German. Aim: An understanding of the modern German writers on the basis of proper acquaintance with grammar; practice in speaking and writing. Course of study: Easy selections from the poetry and prose of eminent German writers; exercises in speaking.

3. History. A survey of general history and a thorough knowl-

edge of Hungarian history. In grade II, ancient and medieval; in grades III and IV, Hungarian history.

4. Geography. Aim: Knowledge of the physical nature of the earth and the present condition of the most important countries, especially in their relation to Hungary. In grade I: Hungary; in grade II: Europe; in grade III: Asia, Africa, America, Australia; and astronomical geography. In grade IV: Political and economic geography of Hungary, and physical geography.

5. Mathematics. Aim: Knowledge of arithmetic and the elements of plane and solid geometry. The four fundamental operations, fractions and planimetry; commercial arithmetic, cubes, areas, and drawing of objects; interest, algebraic calculations; most important characteristics of the triangle, rectangle, circle, ellipse, etc. Measurements in the open. Simple bookkeeping, involution and evolution, equations with one unknown.

6. Bookkeeping. Aim: Acquaintance with the elements of bookkeeping needed by a farmer or a tradesman.

7. Botany and zoology. Aim: Knowledge of the most significant species of plants and animals, their organic structure, and their practical significance. Observation.

8. Mineralogy and chemistry. Aim: Knowledge of the physical and chemical characteristics of elements and compounds, and knowledge of the rules of organic and inorganic chemistry. The most important chemical processes in nature, the human organism, and home. Practical significance of minerals and chemicals. Experiments.

9. Physics. Aim: Knowledge of the most important physical laws. Practical application. Mechanics, heat, sound, light, magnetism, and electricity.

10. Physiology and hygiene. Aim: Familiarity with the human organism and the laws of private and public health. The human body, health, and protection against diseases.

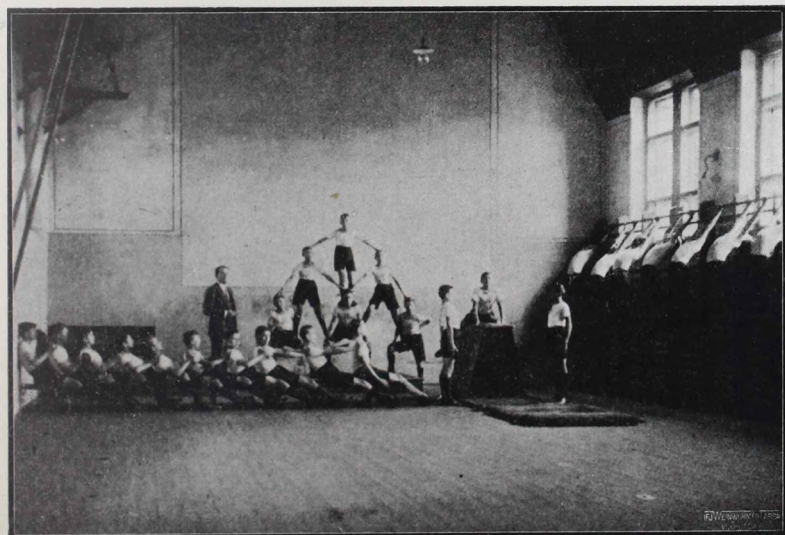
11. Economics and civics. Aim: Familiarity with social life in the field of economics, law, and politics.

12. Music. Aim: Knowledge of songs, rhythm, and notes. Development of musical appreciation.

13. Drawing. Aim: Practice in the perception, memory, and invention of forms and colors; skill in drawing simple objects;



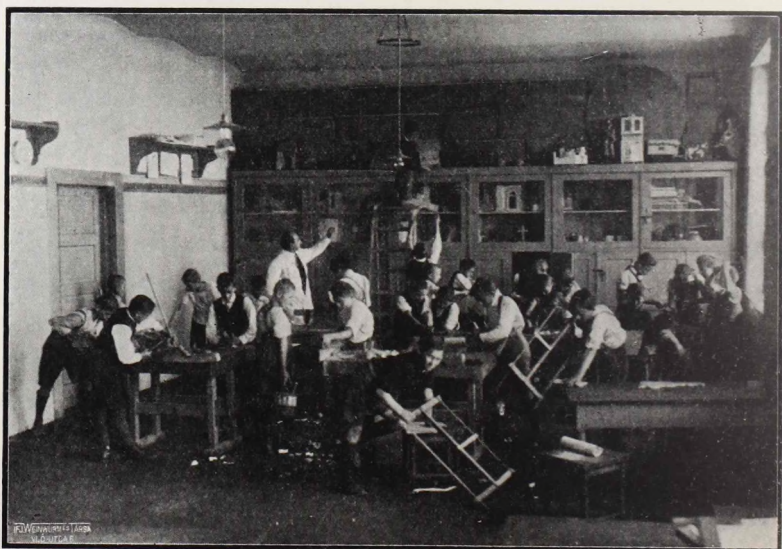
STATE MIDDLE SCHOOL FOR BOYS IN KISPEST



STATE MIDDLE SCHOOL FOR BOYS IN KISPEST
PHYSICAL EXERCISES IN THE GYMNASIUM



STATE MIDDLE SCHOOL FOR BOYS IN KISPEST
DRAWING INSTRUCTION



STATE MIDDLE SCHOOL FOR BOYS IN KISPEST
Woodwork

appreciation of the beautiful through a study of natural objects and the masterpieces of eminent artists.

14. Physical training. Aim: Training for order and obedience, endurance and independence through exercises, games, and sports.

15. Agriculture and manual training. The practical nature of the middle school is ensured primarily by studies which prepare directly for practical life. Such studies are given in agriculture and manual training, particularly. Since a great part of the population of Hungary belongs to the farming class, the middle schools aim to serve them by giving not only theoretical but also practical instruction in agriculture. It is for this purpose that many schools are provided with large tracts of land, sometimes extending to an area of thirty acres. Furthermore, shops are provided for each school and training is given in wood and paper work, bookbinding, and the use of the various tools and machinery.

CURRICULUM OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

The curriculum of the girls' schools, except in the case of the practical work, is the same as that of the boys' schools, yet sub-

SUBJECT	GRADE				
	I	II	III	IV	TOTAL
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	8
Hungarian.....	4(5)	4(5)	4	4	16 (18)
German.....	2(3)	3(4)	3	2	10 (12)
History.....	2	3	5
Geography.....	2	2	2	..	6
Arithmetic and geometry.....	4	3	2	2	11
Botany and zoology.....	3	2	5
Mineralogy and chemistry.....	3	..	3
Physics.....	3	3
Physiology and hygiene.....	2	2
Music.....	1	1	1	1	4
Home economics.....	3	3
Drawing.....	2	2	2	2	8
Penmanship.....	1	1	2
Needlework.....	2	3	2	3	10
Physical training.....	2	2	2	1	7
Total.....	25 (27)	25 (27)	25	28	103 (7)

* In grades I and II Hungarian or German may be increased by one period according to local circumstances.

stantial differences are to be found in the courses of study of certain subjects. The girls' schools aim to bear in mind the characteristic vocations of women and to provide for this factor in their curriculum. Such differences are manifested particularly in the practical subjects, such as needlework, drawing, music, physical training, hygiene, home economics, and even in other subjects.

The curriculum of girls' schools was issued in 1908 and is still in force. The time-schedule is given above.

French is a special subject in the second, third, and fourth grades and is given four periods a week.

ESTABLISHMENT AND SUPPORT OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS

Middle schools may be established by the State, counties, towns, villages, a legally accepted denomination, association, or individual, provided they fulfil the requirements of the law. Permission to establish a middle school is to be obtained from the Ministry of Education. A middle school must be established in every community that has a population of more than 5,000. If necessary, the State may grant financial aid in the enterprise.

In communities where a certain denomination is in the majority, such denomination may assume the right of establishing a middle school and may obtain, if necessary, the assistance of the State. The community or city is required to provide the following for the establishment of a middle school: site, building, furniture, and other equipment, general working expenses, and at least two acres of land for practical work. The State grants aid to poorer communities. A State fund is maintained for this purpose. The plans and budget of schools to be built with State aid are inspected and must be approved by the Ministry. The State also provides for the supervision and control of the building of schools.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR BOYS

RECENT DEVELOPMENT OF HUNGARIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

The old organization and curriculum of the Hungarian secondary school—as shown in the historical review—was regulated by the *Ratio Educationis* of 1777 and 1806, and from 1849 to 1860 by the *Entwurf* of the Vienna government. After the restoration of the constitution in 1867, the foundation of the present secondary school was laid by the Act of 1883, which dealt specifically with these schools and their teachers. This was the first law in Hungary which made an attempt to regulate secondary education.

The Act of 1883 established two types of secondary schools—the classical Gymnasium and the (modern) Real school. The movement in western Europe, however, which around 1880 set itself against the special privilege of Gymnasiums to qualify for entrance to the university and also against the general compulsory study of Greek, exerted its influence upon our Hungarian Gymnasiums as well. This opposition found expression in the Act of 1890, which stipulated that a substitution for the Greek language might be made. This substitution consisted of freehand drawing and a study of Greek art and of the Greek classics in Hungarian translations. This same law provided, furthermore, that pupils taking the substitution course might be admitted to the faculties of law or medicine of the university, but admission to the studies of theology, philology, philosophy, or history could be had only upon examination in the Greek language on the basis of its maturity requirements.

Consequently, the upper grades of the Gymnasium (5-8) branched out in two directions, so that within the walls of one institution two distinct types of the Gymnasium arose, the one teaching both the classical languages, the other only Latin and the subjects substituted for Greek. And at the same time that the secondary schools—including the Real schools—divided into three groups, there now also were three distinct schools, each with the privilege of qualifying candidates for the universities. They differed in the following respects: Gymnasiums with Latin and Greek had unlimited rights of qualification; Gymnasiums without Greek were restricted in their qualifying privilege; Real

schools enjoyed the privilege of qualifying students only for colleges teaching pure or applied natural sciences.

This solution remained in force for over three decades, but was never satisfactory, since the course substituted for Greek was not of equal value with Greek. A reform movement soon arose, partly to bring the secondary school system up to date and partly to give each type an equal right to qualify candidates for the universities. Efforts to accomplish this, however, were suspended on account of the war, until Count Kuno Klebelsberg, Minister of Education, finally effected a solution in the Act of 1924.

PRINCIPLES OF THE REFORM OF 1924

The Act of 1924 did not introduce a radically new tendency into the organization of secondary schools. The history of school reforms shows that no reform can be successful if it breaks radically with the past. The reforms of this new law rest upon two basic ideas: the further differentiation of the various types of secondary schools and the granting of equal rights to the various types with reference to the qualifying of candidates for higher institutions of learning.

The new law introduced a new type of secondary school between the Gymnasium and the Real school: the Realgymnasium. This was in direct opposition to the intentions of the law of 1890, which aimed to have the secondary school give a uniform general culture. The authors of the new law, on the contrary, held that a general culture, as far as its content was concerned, could assume varying hues. Such subjects as Hungarian literature and history must be uniform and the same in all schools, but modern languages, mathematics, natural sciences, and the like might be given an importance varying in the various types of secondary schools. The valuable content of culture has increased tremendously with the intellectual progress of mankind and thus it has become impossible for one type of school to undertake to pass on all of these values with equal emphasis. On the other hand we must take into consideration the receptive powers and individual bent of students. General culture from the point of view of content cannot today be truly general, for all the many spheres and tendencies of modern knowledge cannot be received by one mind. A general culture is only a synthetic

ideal, which cannot be realized in the school; it leads to an overloading of the curriculum, to superficiality, and to a complete diffusion of the mind, and hinders the development of the power to penetrate deeply and independently into particular fields.

The differentiation of secondary schools was supported also by educational psychology, which indicates that an individual should attend schools where the cultural values are in harmony with his endowments and leanings. The authors of the new law were also influenced by the fact that all progress means differentiation and that a system approximates perfection in proportion to the number of organs which exist to take care of the individual functions. Thus the school system must be differentiated in order that the various needs of social life and the different capacities of individuals may find their proper type of school. The uniformity of the national subjects in the various types gives sufficient assurance of a uniformity in the essentials of national culture. Uniformity and identity in the general cultural subjects, however, would ultimately lead to cultural poverty and loss of color.

The new law sets up also the aim of a general cultural education in secondary schools, yet not from the point of view of content, but rather from that of form. The task of each type is first of all to train its students for independent intellectual work, that is, to bring about an aptitude and maturity of mind that will enable a student readily to become familiar with any field of specialization. The curricula of the Gymnasium, Realgymnasium, and the Real school, which we shall discuss later, would seem to serve this end.

In determining the various types of secondary schools the reform had in mind the following points of view:

1. There is need above all for a secondary school which will perpetuate the intensive and vital consciousness of the historical past. A State will never be cultured if it breaks with the historical past. The school of this historical culture is the humanist Gymnasium, in which the Greek and Latin languages and literatures occupy the central position.

2. There is need, furthermore, for a type of secondary school which does not go back to the original source of modern culture but reaches back with a more restricted historical perspective only to Latin culture, becoming, as it were, a reduced Gym-

nasium. This type is the Realgymnasium, which teaches Latin and in place of Greek substitutes a modern language and literature, such as French, English, or Italian. We need not point out the exceptionally important rôle which Latin fills both directly and indirectly in our modern life. It had become the general language of scholars early in the Christian era and was not supplanted even by Greek, popular as that was during the Renaissance. And inasmuch as Latin was the language of State, public life, administration, and literature in Hungary up to the middle of the nineteenth century, having survived there for the longest time, its knowledge is a primary condition of research not only in European but in Hungarian history, too. Latin, we might say, is a national subject in Hungary. It was the language of sciences during centuries of the past and scientific terminology to this day is based upon Greek and Latin. Indeed, it is only with the aid of the Latin language that we can comprehend and appreciate European and Hungarian culture. The new law, therefore, stood in opposition to the effort to eradicate Latin from the curriculum of secondary schools and staunchly insisted that a central place must be given to Latin in the most popular type of secondary school, the Realgymnasium.

3. Finally, there is need for a type of secondary school in which a wholly modern culture predominates, namely, such subjects as modern languages, mathematics, and the natural sciences. This is represented by the Real school. The Real school refutes the charge that the study of Latin and Greek is forced upon students of secondary schools and by placing the historical past too much into the foreground prevents them from obtaining modern culture.

These three types of secondary schools essentially existed in the Hungarian school system before the reform, but were forced into two types. The new law clarified the system by making the third type, the Realgymnasium, an independent school.

This school made unnecessary the Act of 1890, which provided for the free choice of two subjects in the place of Greek. The first of these two subjects was Hungarian literature and outlines of Greek literature and art, and the other subject was freehand drawing. These two subjects, however, were never of equivalent value with the Greek. The new reform felt that, owing to the isolation of the Hungarian language, knowledge of at least two

modern languages was an indispensable condition of modern culture for Hungarians and hence could accept only a modern language as a substitute for Greek.

The substance of the new reform was the creation of the new Realgymnasium type with two modern languages and Latin as obligatory subjects. The result was that a large majority of the secondary schools became Realgymnasiums, being represented by 71 institutions, while there are only 26 Gymnasiums and 21 Real schools.

Another fundamental idea of the Reform of 1924 was that of a uniform qualification, that is, that pupils finishing any of the three types of secondary schools may be admitted to any faculty of the university or any other higher institution. Thus after the maturity examinations nobody is hindered in his free choice of a career merely because at the age of ten he enrolled in one rather than in another secondary school. Serious objections may be raised against this regulation. A pupil finishing a Real school, for example, without knowledge of Latin or Greek would encounter great difficulties in the study of Roman law, legal history, medicine, or the specialized fields of history, philology, and philosophy. Such a student, however, can make up any deficiency. Even thus far the Real school has attempted to supply this lack by offering Latin as a special subject; similarly the deficiencies of the Gymnasium and the Realgymnasium in the field of descriptive geometry are made up by the inclusion of special subjects in the curriculum. The universities also aid in this matter by giving special courses in these fields. As a rule, however, such cases are rare, for nearly everyone chooses a career for which his previous study has aroused his desire; a Real school graduate very rarely applies for admission as a theological student or a classical philologist. In this respect the reform assumes a liberal position, trusting in the ability of individuals to make the proper choice.

The Act of 1924 thus modified the Act of 1883 with reference to the types of secondary schools, their curriculum, and qualification for the universities; it left untouched the previous regulations with respect to State supervision and administration and with respect to the rights of the State and school supporters, because these regulations had stood the test of decades and proved tenable under modern circumstances.

LAW OF 1924

The Function of the Secondary School. According to this Act the function of the secondary school is to train pupils to be good citizens, to give them a liberal education, and to fit them to study independently in any higher educational institute (university).

This task is fulfilled by offering, besides the national studies, courses with a humanist trend, such as Latin and Greek grammar and literature in the Gymnasium (classical school), Latin and modern languages with their respective literatures in the Realgymnasium (mixed school), and modern languages and literatures, mathematics, and natural sciences in the Real school.

Subjects Taught in Secondary Schools. In all three types religion, Hungarian language and literature (with its history), German language and literature, history of Hungary, general history, geography, natural history, physics, mathematics, philosophy, drawing, and physical training are the regular subjects. Schools using other than the Hungarian language as the medium of instruction must teach the grammar and literature of that language.

Besides the above the following are ordinary subjects: in the Gymnasium, Latin and Greek and their respective literatures; in the Realgymnasium, Latin and either English, French, or Italian with its respective literature; finally, in the Real school, either English, French, or Italian with its respective literature, chemistry, geometrical drawing, and descriptive geometry.

Each type is an independent institution and has eight grades.

Territorial Distribution of the Types. The permission of the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction is necessary for setting up any type or types of secondary school. A Gymnasium, if possible, can remain or be set up in a city or community where there is also another type, in order to facilitate the choice of a school on the part of parents and students. The Ministry may, however, in special cases, make an exception to this rule, for instance, in cities with Theological Seminaries.

Admission of Students from Other Countries. Students desiring to transfer from the secondary school of any other country to one of Hungary must obtain permission from the Ministry. As a rule, such a student will be admitted to a class that corresponds to his age (having regard to the status of Hungarian schools), provided he successfully passes an examination in sub-

jects that constitute a difference in the respective curricula; when such differences do not exist, no examination is required.

Number of Periods and Teachers. The number of periods in the first two classes, not counting physical training, is 26 and in the rest, 28; these figures refer only to ordinary, obligatory subjects.

The number of teachers, apart from teachers of religion and teachers of physical training and special subjects, must be at least 13 in each school.

Principals are required to teach not less than three but not more than eight periods per week and teachers a maximum of 18 hours per week. Principals may not teach more than 10 and teachers not more than 24 periods per week. Extra pay is given to principals teaching above 8, and to teachers above 18, periods per week. Principals and teachers may not engage in out-of-school work except with the permission of the Ministry.

The Maturity Examination. A student is entitled to take the maturity examination upon successful completion of the eight grades of the secondary school. Passing of the maturity examination is a condition for admission to a higher institution of learning (universities).

The Size of Classes. No class may have more than 60 students. Within ten years from the time of the enactment of this law this number must be gradually reduced to 40.

THE CURRICULA OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The time-schedules of the three types are as follows:

GYMNASIUM

GRADE	Religion	Hungarian	Latin	Greek	German	History	Geography	Natural Science	Physics	Mathematics	Philosophy	Drawing	Physical Training	Total
I.....	2	5	6	3	2	..	6	..	2	2	28
II.....	2	4	6	..	3	..	3	2	..	4	..	2	2	28
III.....	2	4	6	..	3	3	2	..	2	4	..	2	2	30
IV.....	2	3	6	..	4	2	1	4	..	4	..	2	2	30
V.....	2	3	6	6	3	3	..	2	..	3	2	30
VI.....	2	3	5	6	3	3	..	3	..	3	28
VII.....	2	3	5	5	2	3	1	..	4	3	2	30
VIII.....	2	3	5	5	2	3	4	2	2	..	2	30
Total.....	16	28	45	22	20	17	10	13	10	29	2	8	14	234

REALGYMNASIUM

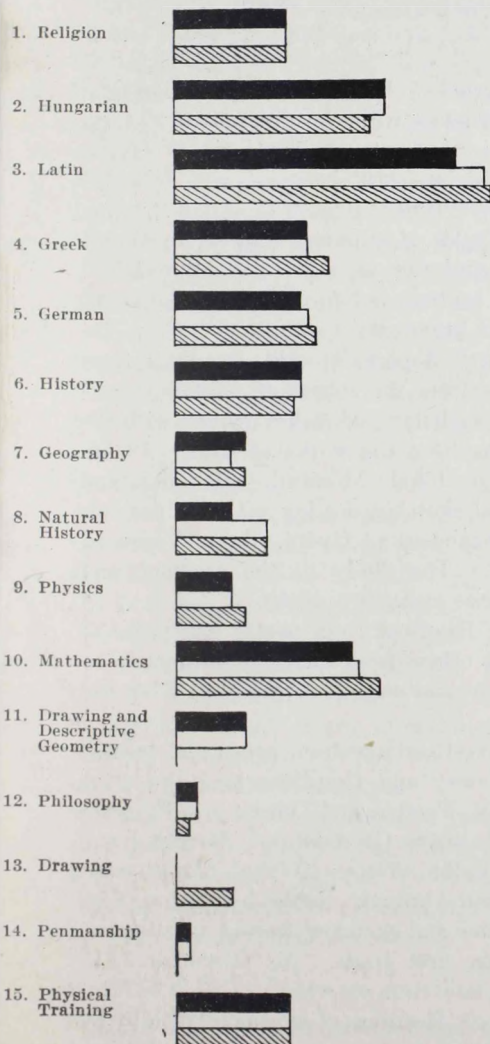
GRADE	Religion	Hungarian	Latin	German	French English Italian	History	Geography	Natural History	Physics	Mathematics	Philosophy	Drawing	Physical Training	Total
I	2	5	6	3	2	..	6	..	2	2	28
II	2	4	6	3	3	2	..	6	..	2	2	30
III	2	4	6	3	..	3	2	..	2	4	..	2	2	30
IV	2	3	6	4	..	2	1	4	..	4	..	2	2	30
V	2	3	5	3	5	3	..	3	..	3	..	1	2	30
VI	2	3	4	3	5	3	1	3	..	3	..	1	2	30
VII	2	3	4	2	4	3	2	..	4	3	..	1	2	30
VIII	2	3	4	2	4	3	4	3	2	1	2	30
Total	16	28	41	20	18	17	12	14	10	32	2	12	16	238

REAL SCHOOL

GRADE	Religion	Hungarian	German	French English Italian	History	Geography	Natural History	Chemistry	Physics	Mathematics	Geometry	Philosophy	Drawing	Physical Training	Total
I	2	5	5	3	2	4	3	..	2	2	28
II	2	5	5	3	2	5	2	..	2	2	28
III	2	3	3	5	3	2	3	3	2	..	2	2	30
IV	2	3	4	5	2	1	..	3	..	4	2	..	2	2	30
V	2	3	3	4	3	..	3	2	..	4	2	..	2	2	30
VI	2	3	3	4	3	..	3	2	..	4	2	..	2	2	30
VII	2	3	2	3	3	1	3	..	4	3	2	..	2	2	30
VIII	2	3	2	3	3	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	30
Total	16	28	27	24	17	12	13	7	11	30	17	2	16	16	236

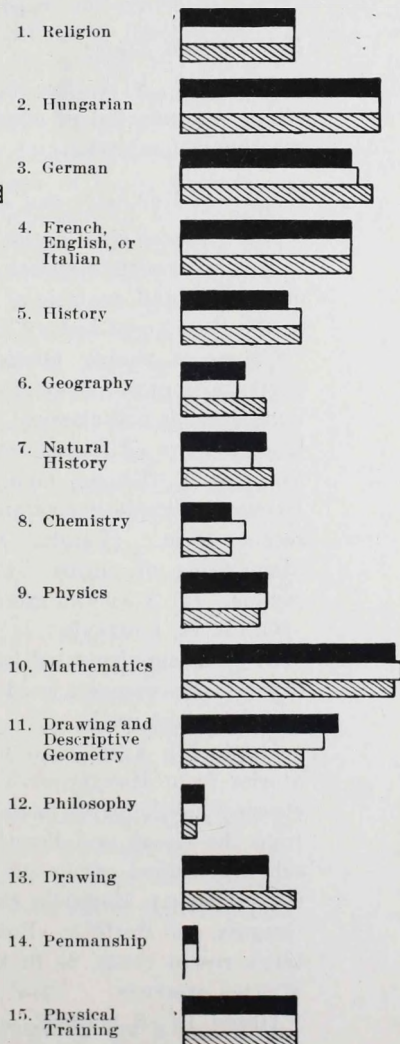
In each schedule an effort is made to emphasize the specialties of each type through either the amount of time devoted to instruction or the amount of material embraced. Thus the humanities receive a total of 160 periods per week in the Gymnasium, 154 in the Realgymnasium, and 126 in the Real school, while the modern subjects receive 76 periods per week in the Gymnasium, 82 in the Realgymnasium, and 110 in the Real school. Languages are taught in 115 periods per week in the Gymnasium, 107 in the Realgymnasium, and 79 in the Real school.

CHANGES IN THE NUMBER OF HOURS
PER WEEK OF THE SUBJECTS OF IN-
STRUCTION OF THE GYMNASIUM,
1879-1927



Curriculum — ■ 1879
□ 1899
▨ 1927

CHANGES IN THE NUMBER OF HOURS
PER WEEK OF THE SUBJECTS OF IN-
STRUCTION OF THE REAL SCHOOL,
1884-1927



Curriculum — ■ 1884
□ 1899
▨ 1927

THE CURRICULUM IN DETAIL

THE GYMNASIUM

Religion and Ethics

Classes I—VIII, two periods. Instruction in religion and ethics is conducted in accordance with the program of the respective denominations.

Hungarian Language and Literature

Aim: Knowledge of the rules of grammar and style; ability in free expression in speech and writing; a literary culture based on reading and analysis of content and form, and on the study of the theory and history of literature.

Course of study: Grade I, 5 periods. (a) Readings from poetry and prose, especially from the sphere of folklore, traditions, legends and classical mythology; sketches dealing with the land and life of Hungarians from the works of Arany, Petöfi, Vörösmarty, Tompa, Gyulai, Jókai, Mikszáth, Gárdonyi, and Herczeg. Simple poems and sketches dealing with the nation's recent crisis. (Vargha, Szabolcska, Gyóni, Sajó, Végyári.) Memorizing of poems. (b) The study of the sentence and sounds. (c) A written exercise every two weeks.

Grade II, 4 periods. (a) Readings from poetry and prose as above, but supplemented by others from the same authors. (b) Compound sentences; word formation; synonyms. (c) Exercises as in the first grade.

Grade III, 3 periods. (a) Readings from prose and poetry. Stories from Hungarian history and traditions and also from classical mythology. Szalay, Tompa, and Gárdonyi. Episodes from the Greek and Persian wars (Herodotus). Patriotic and religious lyrical poems of Petöfi, Arany, Kölcsey, Vörösmarty, Gyulai, Lévy, Endrödy, Emil Ábrányi. Fables by Péczeli, Fáy, Greguss, and Bartóky. Poems and sketches dealing with the nation's recent crisis, as in the first grade. (b) Grammar. (c) Written exercises.

Grade IV, 3 periods. (a) Reading of poems: "Toldi" by Arany, and popular romances of Vörösmarty and Petöfi. Lyrical poems by Berzsenyi, Kölcsey, Vörösmarty, Garay, Kozma, Charles Kisfaludy. Prose: stories, character sketches, and

essays on Hungarian history and nature. (b) Elements of style and poetry. (c) Written exercises; business correspondence.

Grade V, 3 periods. (a) Poems: Ballads and romances, popular and literary. Historical and folk ballads of John Arany. A Historical Song of Tinódi. National lyrics from the works of Balassi, Berzsenyi, Kölcsey, Vörösmarty, Petöfi, Arany, Tompa, Gyulai. (b) Prose: Stories, essays, letters, speeches and dissertations, e.g., *Letters from Turkey* by Mikes, letters of Francis Kazinczy, *Parainesis* by Kölcsey, speech of Louis Kossuth on national defence, Francis Deák's memorandum to the king, *Hungary During the Turkish Domination* by Salamon, *The National Mission of Science* by Baron Joseph Eötvös, works on natural science by Otto Herman. (c) Monthly written exercises.

Grade VI, 3 periods. (a) Poetry—1. Epic: Selections from Homer, Dante's *Divine Comedy*, Zrinyi's *Tragedy of Sziget*, Arany's *Death of Buda*; 2. Lyric: One or two psalms, smaller poems; 3. Drama: *Antigone* by Sophocles, *Coriolanus* or *Julius Cæsar* by Shakespeare, *Learned Women* by Molière, *The Suitors* by Charles Kisfaludy; 4. Prose: Essays on æsthetics; *Biography of Vörösmarty* and essays on the drama by Gyulai and on tragedy by Beöthy. Home reading: *The Village Notary* by Eötvös, *Hard Times* by Kemény, *The Pagans* by Herczeg. (b) Poetics. (c) Written exercises.

Grades VII and VIII, 3 periods. (a) History of Hungarian literature to the nineteenth century. In the eighth grade the history of Hungarian literature from the nineteenth century to modern times. (b) Study of the historical development of the Hungarian language. (VII.) (c) Written exercises in composition and collection of material.

Note. Ten to fifteen classical poems must be memorized in each grade. Students are required to know by heart the Magyar Hymn (Kölcsey), Appeal (Vörösmarty), National Anthem (Petöfi), and Adoration (Berzsenyi). Also ten to sixteen poems by Petöfi, Arany, and Vörösmarty.

Greek and Latin Language and Literature

Aim: Ability to understand and translate Greek and Latin writers on the basis of a sound knowledge of grammar; familiarity with the most important literary products of both languages and with the life and outlook on life of Greeks and Ro-

mans; an understanding of the Greek and Roman elements in Hungarian culture.

Greek Language and Literature

Grade V, 6 periods. (a) Greek legends, myths, and history. Simplified prose. (b) The Attic dialect. (c) Written exercises fortnightly for practice in grammar. (Translation, Hungarian into Greek.)

Grade VI, 6 periods. (a) Selections from Xenophon, Herodotus; Homer's *Odyssey*. (b) Grammar completed. Exercises as above. (Translation, Hungarian into Greek and Greek into Hungarian.)

Grade VIII, 5 periods. (a) Readings: Plato, Aristotle, related selections from the history of science. Selections from the Bible and Church Fathers. (b) Grammatical explanations, and (c) written exercises as in grade VII.

Note. Readings are in the form of a chrestomathy. Selections are sometimes memorized.

Latin Language and Literature

Grade I, 6 periods. (a) Simple readings. (b) Declension and conjugation of active verbs; vocabulary, maxims, collection of proverbs. Exercises in speaking. (c) Written exercises. (Translation, Hungarian into Latin.) Grade II, 6 periods. (a) Simple readings. (b) Continuation of declensions and conjugation and review. Vocabulary, maxims, and proverbs with exercises in speaking. (c) Written exercises as in grade I.

Grade III, 6 periods. (a) Reading: Phædrus and selections from Roman life and history. (b) Study of the simple sentence. Word study. Maxims, proverbs, and exercises in speaking. (c) Written exercises. (Translation into Latin for practice in sentence structure.)

Grade IV, 6 periods. (a) Readings: Selections from Ovid and prose as in grade III. (b) Study of compound sentences. Exercises in speaking. Elements of prosody. (c) Written exercises as in grade III.

Grade V, 6 periods. (a) Readings: Selections from lyrical poetry; coherent parts from Livy, Books XXI-XXII. (b) Exercises in speaking on the basis of readings. Further study of prosody. (c) Written exercises. (Translation into Latin.)

Grade VI, 5 periods. (a) Readings: Virgil's *Æneid*, Books I—V; Cicero's *Orations*; a work of Sallust. (b) and (c) as in grade V.

Grade VII, 5 periods. (a) Readings: Virgil's *Æneid*, Books VI—XII; Cicero's *De Signis*; *Letters* of Pliny the Younger. (b) and (c) as in grade V.

Grade VIII, 5 periods. (a) Readings: Horace, selections from Roman philosophers (Cicero, Seneca); Tacitus and Church Fathers. (b) and (c) as in grade V.

Note. Ancient life and important movements in literature are taught in connection with the readings. Well-known poems are memorized in each grade.

German Language and Literature

Aim: An understanding of the works of modern German writers on the basis of a thorough knowledge of grammar and familiarity with the intellectual life of the Germans; and practice in the use of the German language both in speech and in writing.

Grade II, 3 periods. (a) Conversation and readings: The school and family life, stories, narratives, essays on geographical and nature subjects; short poems and simple letter forms. (b) Grammar: reading, German script, the principal noun and verb forms, frequently prepositions, pronouns, and numerals and word order. (c) Two written exercises monthly; dictation, composition, replies to questions, sentence structure on the basis of conversation and reading.

Grades III-IV, 3 and 4 periods. (a) Readings: Easy stories, legends and narratives (Grimm, Hebel, Lessing, Bechstein, Schwab). Descriptions; songs (Goethe, Uhland, Hoffmann von Fallersleben, Ruckert) and short narrative poems (Goethe, Schiller, Uhland, Chamisso). (b) Grammar: word formation, word order, the simple sentence. (c) Two written exercises monthly: review, exposition, narratives, simple letters, sentence formation on the basis of readings.

Grade V, 3 periods. (a) Readings: Easy reading in the history, geography, customs, and social conditions of Germany. Narratives; songs (Goethe, Heine, Lenau); ballads and romances (Goethe, Schiller). (b) Grammar: Compound and complex sentences with emphasis on characteristics not found in Hungarian.

(c) Two written exercises monthly: reviews, experiences, translation of text.

Grade VI, 3 periods. (a) Readings: prose narratives (Tieck, Freytag, Keller); songs (Brentano, Eichendorff, Heine, Lenau, Mörike, Storm, Liliencron); ballads and romances (Goethe, Schiller, Uhland, Chamisso); Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea*, Pts. I, II, IV, and VII. (b) Further study of grammar; study of elements of German verse. (c) One written exercise every month.

Grade VII, 2 periods. (a) Readings: Selections from ancient literature (*Hildebrandslied*, the *Nibelungenlied*, and the legend of Gral and Artus). Selections from Klopstock, Chaps. XIII-XVI of Lessings' *Laokoon*, the Hamburg dramaturgists (Voltaire, Semiramis), Herder, A. von Humboldt, and Grimm. Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*. (b) Study of grammar continued. (c) Written exercises twice monthly either as school work or as home work: reflections on reading, descriptions and exposition, translation of texts.

Grade VIII, 2 periods. (a) Readings: Goethe's *Iphigenie auf Tauris* or *Torquato Tasso*; selections from Goethe's *Faust*, H. von Kleist, Novalis, Grillparzer, Hebbel, Ranke, Mommsen, Kant. Survey of the history of German literature on the basis of the readings. (b) Grammar. (c) Written exercises as in grade VII.

Note. The language of instruction, whenever possible, is German in all grades; some poems are memorized.

History

Aim: A general survey of world history with special study of the history of Hungary.

Grade III, 3 periods. History of the Hungarian race to our day.

Grade IV, 2 periods. Ancient history to the death of Marcus Aurelius.

Grade V, 3 periods. History of the Middle Ages from the Migration of Nations to the sixteenth century with special reference to the history of the Hungarian nation.

Grade VI, 3 periods. World history from the dissolution of the institutions of the Middle Ages to the formation of the great powers; in connection with Hungarian history.

Grade VII, 3 periods. The French Revolution and modern history in connection with Hungarian history.

Grade VIII, 3 periods. History of Hungary with special regard to social life and institutions.

Geography

Aim: Knowledge of the earth and life upon it; a clear understanding of the geographical, historical, and economic situation of the country, especially on the basis of map study.

Grade I, 3 periods. I. Introduction: Study of the immediate environment. II. General characteristics of the Carpathian or Hungarian basin. Upper and lower plains, the Transylvanian basin, the mountainous southwest, and the coast. III. Elementary geography of geographical units. Political relationships in their present form.

Grade II, 3 periods. Europe and Asia.

Grade III, 3 periods. Africa, America, Australia, the polar regions; elements of astronomical geography.

Grade IV, 1 period. Descriptive geography summarized.

Grade VII, 1 period. Study of geographical factors in the oldest and classical areas of civilization, as the Mediterranean and adjoining countries, Primeval Asia, North Africa, Western Europe and the Danube Valley, Mesopotamia and Egypt, Greece, Italy, etc.

Natural History

Aim: Study of the most common minerals and rocks, plants and animals, with observations; their practical significance and use.

Grade I, 2 periods. Presentation of the most common fruits and grains; agriculture. The human body and the care of health. Domestic animals. Blossoms of fruit trees, fruit growing, the morphology and ecology of blooming plants.

Grade II, 2 periods. Some mammalia (apes, camels, yak, llama, elephant, etc.). Home birds. Typical members of the reptile and amphibian orders. Fresh and salt water fish, shellfish, snails, insects, crabs, spider, earthworm, leech; trees, care of forests, kitchen garden, forage, industrial and medicinal plants. Excursions and collections.

Grade IV, 4 periods. Mineralogy and chemistry. Water; hydrogen. Air; oxygen, nitrogen. Simple and compound sub-

stances. Sulphur, phosphorus, carbon, crystals, metals, acids and bases, salts. Hydrocarbons, natural gas, petroleum, lighting gas, carbohydrates, fermentation, fats, soap, alkaloids. Volcanoes, water, air, and organisms as geological factors. Brief study of mountain structure and of the history of the earth's formation; fossils.

Grade V, 2 periods. Botany. Study of spores and seminiferous plants. The cell and tissue. The natural system and the relation of plants. One natural system, characteristics of the important groups. Plants important in practical life, their distribution. Characteristic plants of Hungary. Collection of plants.

Grade VI, 3 periods. Zoology: The organism and functions of the animal body on the basis of a study of the human body. Animal groups, discussion of the important classes on the basis of types, with regard for the most important and common native animals. Geographical distribution of animals. Excursions, collections, laboratory work.

Mathematics

Aim: Accuracy and skill in computation; comprehension of the simpler numerical relationships of practical life; readiness in the expression and practical use of mathematical functions.

Grade I, 6 periods. (a) Arithmetic: The four fundamental operations with whole numbers, decimals, and common fractions. Study of the coinage, linear, area, space, weight, and time system of the country. (b) Geometry. The most important plane figures (quadrilaterals, triangles, polygons, circle). Fundamental study of congruence, similarity, and symmetry of figures. Drawing of figures.

Grade II, 4 periods. (a) Arithmetic. Direct and inverse proportions, simple proportion, ratio and proportion, percentage, weights and measures, old but still useful measurements, graphs. (b) Geometry. Hexahedron, prism, and pyramid. Construction of these objects.

Grade III, 4 periods. (a) Arithmetic. Interest, stocks and bonds, notes, graphs, algebraic symbols. (b) Geometry, cylinder, cone, and sphere.

Grade IV, 4 periods. (a) Algebra. Addition and multiplication, subtraction and division. Powers, arithmetical and geo-

metrical progressions, binomial and trinomial squares and cubes. Graph of functions. Simple equation with one unknown quantity; proportion. Simple equation with two unknown quantities. Solution by graphs. (b) Planimetry. Summary of planimetry. Triangles, the circle, geometrical positions, quadrilaterals, and polygons.

Grade V, 3 periods. (a) Algebra. Square roots, irrational numbers, equations of the second degree and graphical representation of functions of the second degree, solutions by graph, zero and negative exponents. The decimal and other numeral systems. Powers with fractional and irrational exponents. (b) Planimetry. Similar figures, triangles, the Pythagorean theorem, area of rectangles.

Grade VI, 3 periods. (a) Algebra. Infinite series, infinite geometrical progressions, logarithms and logarithmic operations, compound interest, and annuities, loans, notes. (b) Trigonometry. Trigonometrical functions, the circle and polygons, circumference and area of the circle. Segments. Trigonometric computations and measurements in the open.

Grade VII, 3 periods. (a) Analytical geometry. Rectangular co-ordinates, distance between two points, relationships of the straight line, equations of a straight line, equations of a circle, parabola, vertices and tangents, differential quotients, differentiation of simple functions, ascending curves, maximum values, indeterminate integral. (b) Stereometry. Areas, calculation of areas from given dimensions, straight lines and planes, correlative positions of planes, angles of lines and planes, convex polyhedrals, Euler's theorem, the surfaces and cubic contents of prisms, pyramids, and truncated pyramids.

Grade VIII, 2 periods. (a) Stereometry. Cylinder, cone, truncated cone and sphere and their surfaces, surface of spherical segments, spherical segments, area and volume of the frustrum. Sines and cosines of spherical trigonometry. Computation and adaptation of true distances. (b) Algebra. Variation, permutation and combination, binomial theorem, theory of probability.

Physics

Aim: Knowledge of the most important theories and laws relating to phenomena in physics; experiments; familiarity with the most significant practical applications.

Grade III, 2 periods. Important phenomena in mechanics, heat, sound, light, and electricity. Introduction to the most common simple and complex machines.

Grade VII, 4 periods. Mechanics: fundamental conceptions, motion, Kepler's laws, Newton's axioms, work, energy, equilibrium, angular velocity, pendulum, gravitation. Hydrostatics, capillarity. Aerostatics, diffusion, vibrations. Sound: origins of sound, diffusion, diffraction, pitch, Dopple's principle, analysis of sound, the ear. Light: rectilinear diffusion and consequences, velocity, intensity, diffraction; the eye, accommodation, spectacles, magnifying lens and telescope; reflection, achromatism, spectral analysis, chemical effects, interferences, diffraction, and polarization.

Grade VIII, 4 periods. Heat: fundamental conceptions, conduction and convection, thermometer, laws of gases, specific heat, moisture of air, liquefaction of gases, diffusion of heat, mechanical equivalent of heat, theories of heat, geysers, steam engine, gas engine. Magnetism: fundamental conceptions. Coulomb's law, molecular theory, the earth's magnetism. Electricity: the fundamental phenomena, electroscope, attraction, electrophorus, condensers, atmospheric electricity, potentiality, capacity, spherical condenser, stationary current, experiments of Galvani and Volta, Ohm's law, galvanometers and batteries, effects of the current, magnetic field, telegraph, telephone, microphone, dynamo, generator and motor, wave telegraphy, cathode and Roentgen rays, radioactivity. Astronomy: the starry sky, Copernicus, the sun and the year, time computation.

Philosophy

Aim: Knowledge of the chief phenomena of mental life and a systematic survey of the general forms of thought as a comprehensive climax of secondary school education.

Grade VIII, 2 periods. The problems and divisions of philosophy. I. Psychology: subject matter and method; thinking, emotion, will. II. Logic: subject matter and problems; the elemental forms of thought, systematic forms of thought, the system of sciences, the relation between philosophy and the sciences.

Note. The discussions of psychological and logical questions will occasionally include examples taken from the history of philosophy.

Drawing

Aim: Readiness in drawing as a method of expression, and an understanding of artistic expression; solution of characteristic tasks of simpler artistic problems and the development of the æsthetic sense through the study of masterpieces.

Grade I, 2 periods. Exercises in drawing lines; plane drawings, exercises with accurate measuring instruments; decorative designs; drawing from memory and imagination.

Grade II, 2 periods. Plane drawing; projections; decorative designs; drawing from memory and imagination.

Grade III, 2 periods. Plane drawing; perspectives; projections; decorative designs; drawing from memory and imagination; study of masterpieces.

Grade IV, 2 periods. Plane drawing; perspectives; projections; decorative designs; drawing from memory and imagination and study of masterpieces.

Physical Training

Two periods per week in all grades.

Aim: A well-developed, healthy, hardy, trained body; courageous and disciplined conduct and esprit de corps.

I. Special exercises: (a) neck; (b) finger, hand, arm, and shoulder; (c) trunk; (d) leg; (e) breathing.

II. General exercises: (a) Individual exercises with gymnastic apparatus; lifting, carrying, throwing, supporting, suspension, walking, running, hopping, jumping, equilibrium, skating, sledging, skiing, swimming, rowing. (b) Group exercises: dancing, games, drills, wrestling, pull and push, and fencing.

III. Exercises designed to prepare for life and occupations. Scouting: (a) excursions; (b) self-defence; (c) first aid. In conjunction with the exercises explanations are given from time to time about hygienic living, the proper spirit of competition, and protection of country.

Note. Athletic events are arranged from time to time.

Hygiene

Obligatory extraordinary subject.

Grade VII, 2 periods during the second semester. The human body, conditions of good health, nutrition, water and soil, the home, care and discipline of body, rest, recreation, sleep, sickness

and its causes, prevention of sickness, nursing, infectious diseases, tuberculosis and its prevention, accidents, first aid, the more dangerous cases of poisoning, first aid for poisoned, transportation of sick, regulations in the interest of good food, the town and village street, the hygienic conditions of a good home.

Grade VIII, 2 periods during first semester. Public health, decrease and increase of population, babies, children, adolescents, abstinence, health of adults and aged, occupational hygiene, health of cities and villages, the rôle of society in the interest of health, survey of health laws and regulations.

Singing

Obligatory extraordinary subject.

Grades I and II, 1 period. The elements of writing and reading notes; development of the sense of rhythm and song according to Daleröze's method; singing of one-part songs, among which are included the National Anthem and patriotic songs. Singing in the remaining classes is taught in the form of chorus work and is not required.

THE REALGYMNASIUM

Religion and Ethics

Grades I-VIII, 2 periods. Instruction in religion and ethics is carried on according to the program of the respective denominations.

Hungarian Language and Literature

Grade I, 5 periods; II-III, 4 periods; VI-VIII, 4 periods. As in the Gymnasium.

Latin Language and Literature

Grades I-IV, 6 periods; V, 5 periods; VI-VIII, 4 periods. The subject matter is the same as that in the Gymnasium, except that Plautus' *Captivi* is read in the fifth grade instead of lyric poems, while other lyric poets are studied along with Horace in the eighth grade.

German Language and Literature

Grades II and III, 3 periods; IV, 4 periods; V-VI, 3 periods; VII-VIII, 2 periods. As in the Gymnasium.

French Language and Literature

Aim: Acquaintance with modern French literature; knowledge of French grammar; familiarity with French life and genius; practice in writing and speaking correct French.

Grade V, 5 periods. (a) Readings: simple descriptions drawn from the pupils' daily life; stories, dialogues; short poems committed to memory. (b) Conversation based on the reading. (c) Pronunciation, reading. Grammar: elementary forms, auxiliaries, regular verb inflections in simple forms and compounds, the past indefinite. (d) Written exercises. (Dictation, copying, translation.)

Grade VI, 5 periods. (a) Readings: short narratives, dialogues, letters, easy essays on the geography, culture, and social life of the French; poems. (b) Conversation. (c) Grammar: irregular verbs. Written exercises as in grade V, and also writing of simple letters.

Grade VII, 4 periods. (a) Readings: selections from nineteenth century writers (Balzac, Flaubert, Daudet, Maupassant, Theuriet, Loti), dramatists (Auglier, Coppée, Rostand), lyric poets (Béranger, Lamartine, Hugo, Leconte de Lisle, Herédia, Sully-Prudhomme, Coppée). The elements of French prosody. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar, synonyms, proverbs, and idioms. Written exercises: Translations and composition.

Grade VIII, 4 periods. (a) Readings from seventeenth and eighteenth century prose writers (Pascal, Mme. de Sevigné, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau) and dramatists (Corneille, Racine, Molière). (b) Conversation. (c) Completion of grammar; synonyms and idioms. Written exercises as in grade VII.

Note. The language of instruction, whenever possible, is French.

English Language and Literature

Aim: Acquaintance with modern English literature; knowledge of English grammar; familiarity with English life and character; practice in writing and speaking correct English.

Grade V, 5 periods. (a) Readings: simple descriptions drawn from the pupils' daily life, short stories, dialogues; poems committed to memory; conversation on the basis of the reading. (b) Grammar: pronunciation, reading, elements of form, con-

jugation of auxiliary and regular verbs. (c) Written exercises: dictation, easy composition, translation into English.

Grade VI, 5 periods. (a) Readings: short narratives, dialogues, letters, easy essays on the geography, culture, and social life of the English; poems; memorization. (b) Conversation. (c) Grammar; impersonal and important irregular verbs. (d) Written exercises as in grade V, and writing of easy letters.

Grade VII, 4 periods. (a) Readings: selections from nineteenth century prose writers (Dickens, Thackeray, Scott, Irving, Kipling, Wilde) and poets (Byron, Moore, Shelley, Wordsworth, Tennyson, Poe, Longfellow). The influence of these writers on Hungarian literature. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar, synonyms, and idioms; elements of English prosody. (d) Written exercises: translations and composition.

Grade VIII, 4 periods. (a) Readings: selections from sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth century prose writers (Goldsmith, Johnson, Fielding, Sterne, Swift, Defoe, Spectator, Bacon, Sidney) and poets (Burns, Scotch ballads; Pope, Thomson, Gray, Goldsmith; Milton, Shakespeare). Their influence on Hungarian literature. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar. (d) Written exercise as in grade VII.

Note. The language of instruction, whenever possible, is English in all grades.

Italian Language and Literature

Aim: Acquaintance with modern Italian literature; knowledge of Italian grammar; familiarity with Italian life and character; practice in writing and speaking correct Italian.

Grade V, 5 periods. (a) Readings: simple descriptions from the daily life of the pupil, short stories, dialogues, short poems, memorization. (b) Conversation on the basis of the reading. (c) Grammar: pronunciation, reading, elements of form, conjugation of auxiliary and regular verbs. (d) Written exercises: dictation, composition, and translation.

Grade VI, 5 periods. (a) Readings: short narratives, dialogues, letters, easy essays on the geography, culture, and social life of Italians, poems, memorization. (b) Conversation. (c) Grammar: impersonal, passive, and the more important irregular verbs. (d) Written exercises as in grade V and simple letter writing.

Grade VII, 4 periods. (a) Readings: selections from eminent writers, from modern writers (de Amicis, Cantu, Pellico, Manzoni, etc.); shorter poems (Carducci, Giusti, Manzoni, etc.); selections from some comedy by Goldoni (*La Locandiera*, *Pamela Fanciulla*). The elements of Italian verse. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar, synonyms, idioms. (d) Written exercises: translations and reviews, compositions.

Grade VIII, 4 periods. (a) Readings: selections from older writers (Boccaccio, Villani, Machiavelli, Galilei, etc.); older poets (Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso); selections from some tragedy by Alfieri (*Saul* or *Orest*); short poems by older poets (Petrarch, Parini, Monti, Foscolo, Leopardi, Metastasio, etc.). Memorizing. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar. (d) Written exercises as in grade VII.

History

Grades III, and V-VIII, 3 periods; IV, 2 periods.

The aim and subject matter are the same as those of the Gymnasium.

Geography

Grades I-II, 3 periods; III, 2 periods; IV, 1 period. The object and subject matter are the same as those of the Gymnasium.

Grade VI, 1 period. General knowledge of the geography of the modern world. Plant and animal world and their relation to human life. Natural geographical regions. Distribution of plants significant in human civilization. Distribution of wild animals and useful domestic animals. Geographical distribution of important minerals: coal, petroleum, iron, copper, and gold. Distribution of the human race. Primitive people and their mode of life. The necessities of life, how provided. The different regions of civilization. Distribution by occupations. Economic differentiation, division of labor. Forms and conditions of colonization. Commerce. Emigration and immigration. Man as a social being, the family, race, and nation.

Grade VII, 2 periods. Geography of the modern world with special regard for Hungary. 1. Survey of the geography of Europe and other continents for understanding the geographical status of Hungary. 2. Geographical survey of the Hungarian basin. 3. The economic coherence of the various parts of Hun-

gary, and changes which have come about. 4. Present relation of Hungary to neighbouring countries; the Trianon treaties.

Natural History

Grades I-II, 2 periods; IV, 4 periods; V-VI, 3 periods. Object and subject matter the same as those of the Gymnasium.

Mathematics

Grades I, 6 periods; II-IV, 4 periods; V-VIII, 3 periods. Object and subject matter the same as those of the Gymnasium, except that complex numbers are added in grade VIII.

Physics

Grade III, 2 periods; VII-VIII, 4 periods. As in the Gymnasium.

Philosophy

Grade VIII, 2 periods. As in the Gymnasium.

Drawing

Grades I-IV, 2 periods. As in the Gymnasium.

Grades V-VIII, 1 period. More practical objects are used for models, and emphasis is laid upon practical art work; masterpieces are not studied.

Physical Training

Same as in the Gymnasium.

Hygiene

Same as in the Gymnasium.

THE REAL SCHOOL

Religion and Ethics

Grades I-VIII, 2 periods. Instruction is carried on according to the program of the respective denominations.

Hungarian Language and Literature

Grades I-II, 5 periods; III-VIII, 3 periods. Same as in the Gymnasium.

German Language and Literature

Aim: Same as in the Gymnasium.

Grades I-II, 5 periods. (a) Conversation and readings: school life, stories, narratives, legends (Grimm, Hebel, Lessing). Let-

ters; descriptions from nature and geography; songs (Goethe, Uhland, Rückert, Hoffmann v. Fallersleben); short epic poems. (b) Grammar: reading, writing; conjugation; declension of nouns and adjectives; comparison of adjectives, pronouns, numerals, prepositions; order of words. (c) Two written exercises monthly: dictation, composition, answers to questions, sentences, and conversation on the basis of the reading.

Grade III, 3 periods; IV, 4 periods. Subject matter same as in the Gymnasium.

Grade V, 3 periods. (a) Readings: simple readings about the history, geography, culture, and social life of Germany; selections from Goethe's *Dichtung u. Wahrheit*; narratives (Aurbacher, Hebel); selections from Voss's *Homer*; songs (Goethe, Heine, Lenau); ballads and romances (Goethe, Schiller). (b) Grammar and written work as in the Gymnasium.

Grade VI, 3 periods. (a) Readings: prose narratives (Tieck, Freytag, Keller); descriptions and essays; songs (Eichendorff, Morike, Storm, Liliencron); lyric poetry (Schiller: *Lied von der Glocke, Spaziergang*); Goethe's *Hermann u. Dorothea*, Songs I, II, IV, VI, VII. (b) Grammar and written work as in the Gymnasium.

Grade VII, 2 periods. Same as in the Gymnasium.

Grade VIII, 2 periods. (a) Readings: selections from Schiller's *Wallenstein* and Goethe's *Faust*, H. Kleist, Novalis, Grillparzer, Hebel, Ranke, Mommsen, Kant. Summary of the history of German literature. (b) Grammar and written work as in the Gymnasium.

French Language and Literature

Aim: Same as in the Realgymnasium.

Grades III-IV, 5 periods. (a) Readings: simple descriptions taken from the daily life of the pupil, stories, dialogues, letters, proverbs, poems, memory work. (b) Conversation on the basis of the reading. (c) Grammar: pronunciation, reading, elements of forms, auxiliary, regular, and irregular verbs. (d) Written work: copy, dictation, composition, translation.

Grade V, 4 periods. (a) Readings: simple readings about the geography, culture, economic and social life of France; narratives, and poems. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar, synonyms and idioms. (d) Written work as in previous classes.

Grade VI, 4 periods. (a) Readings: French history, narratives, and poems. (b) Conversation. (c) Grammar and written work as in previous classes.

Grade VII, 3 periods. (a) Readings: selections from nineteenth century prose writers (Mérimée, Balzac, Flaubert, Daudet, Maupassant, France, Loti); dramatists (Augier, Coppée, Rostand); lyric poets (Béranger, Lamartine, Hugo, Leconte de Lisle, Sully Prudhomme, Coppée, Baudelaire). Study of romanticism and realism. Elements of French prosody. (b) Conversation. (c) Review of grammar. (d) Written exercises; composition and letters.

Grade VIII, 3 periods. (a) Readings: selections from seventeenth and eighteenth century prose writers (Pascal, Mme. de Sevigné, Fénelon, La Bruyère, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau); dramatists (Corneille, Racine, Molière); fable writers (La Fontaine).

English Language and Literature

Aim: Same as in the Realgymnasium.

Grades III-IV, 5 periods. (a) Readings: simple descriptions from the daily life of the pupils, stories, dialogues, letters, proverbs, poems, memorization. (b) Conversation on the basis of the readings. (c) Grammar: pronunciation, reading, the elements of form, auxiliary, regular, and irregular verbs.

Grade V, 4 periods. (a) Readings: simple readings about the geography, culture, economic and social life of England, narratives, poems. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar, synonyms, idioms. (d) Written work as in lower classes.

Grade VII, 3 periods. (a) Readings: selections from nineteenth century prose writers (Dickens, Thackeray, Scott, Irving, Kipling, Wilde) and poets (Byron, Moore, Shelley, Wordsworth, Tennyson, Poe, Longfellow). Study of important literary tendencies of the nineteenth century. Elements of English prosody. (b) Conversation. (c) Review of grammar. (d) Written exercises as in previous classes; also easy composition and letter writing.

Grade VIII, 3 periods. (a) Readings: selections from the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth century prose writers (Goldsmith, Johnson, Fielding, Sterne, Swift, Defoe, Spectator) and poets (Burns, Scotch ballads, Pope, Thomson, Gray, Gold-

smith, Milton, Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, Bacon, Sidney, Dryden). Study of important literary tendencies. (b) Conversation. (c) Grammar. (d) Written exercises as in previous grades.

Note. The language of instruction, whenever possible, is English.

Italian Language and Literature

Aim: Same as in the Realgymnasium.

Grades III-IV, 5 periods. (a) Readings: simple descriptions from the daily life of the student, stories, dialogues, letters, proverbs, poems, memory work. (b) Conversations. (c) Grammar: Pronunciation, reading, elements of form, auxiliary, regular, reflexive, and irregular verbs. (d) Written work: copying, dictation, composition, translation.

Grade V, 4 periods. (a) Readings: simple reading about the geography, culture, social and economic life of Italy; narratives and poems. (b) Conversation. (c) Systematic grammar, synonyms, idioms. (d) Written exercises as in previous grades and reviews.

Grade VI, 4 periods. (a) Readings: history of Italy, narratives, poems. (b) Conversation. (c) Grammar. (d) Written exercises as in previous grades.

Grade VII, 3 periods. (a) Readings: selections from modern writers (de Amicis, Cantu, Pellico, Manzoni, Fogazzaro, etc.); lyric poets and dramatists (Carducci, Giusti, Manzoni). Study of important literary tendencies. The elements of Italian prosody. (b) Conversation. (c) Review of grammar. (d) Written exercises as in previous grades; also composition and letter writing.

Grade VIII, 3 periods. (a) Readings; selections from early writers (Boccaccio, Villani, Machiavelli, Galilei, etc.) and poets (Dante, Ariosto, Tasso, Alfieri, Petrarch, Parini, Monti, Foscolo, Leopardi, Metastasio, etc.). Study of the important literary tendencies. (b) Conversation. (c) Grammar. (d) Written exercises as in previous grades.

Note. The language of instruction, whenever possible, is Italian.

History

Same as in the Gymnasium.

Geography

Aim: Same as in the Gymnasium.

Grades I-II, 3 periods; III, 2 periods; IV, 1 period. Subject matter same as in the Gymnasium.

Grade VII, 1 period. Same as in grade VI of the Realgymnasium.

Grade VIII, 2 periods. Same as in grade VII of the Realgymnasium.

Natural History

Grades I-II, 2 periods. Same as in the Gymnasium.

Grade V, 3 periods. Mineralogy and geology.

Grade VI, 3 periods. Botany as in grade V of the Gymnasium.

Grade VII, 3 periods. Zoology as in grade VI of the Gymnasium.

Chemistry

Aim: Knowledge of the physical and chemical properties of the more important elements and compounds and of the laws concerning the composition of organic and inorganic substances; on experimental basis, knowledge of the most important chemical processes in nature, in the human body, and in the home.

Grade IV, 3 periods. Physical properties of water, water as solvent; the analysis of water, oxygen, hydrogen, fire, air, oxidation, elements, mixtures, compounds, atom, molecule, chemical symbols and formulæ, classification of elements, sodium, acids and bases, salts, sulphur, sulphuric acid, sulphates, hydrogen-sulphide lime, nitrogen, ammonia, sublimation, phosphorus, carbon, carbonates, silicon, aluminium, zinc, iron, metallurgy, metals, hydrocarbons, petroleum, flame, vinegar, fats, carbohydrates, fermentation, alkaloids, and albumen.

Grade V, 2 periods. Brief review of the work in grade IV on the basis of experiments. The molecular and atomic theory, the kinetic theory of gases, the principle of Avogadro, chemical formulæ, equations and simple stoichiometric computations, the periodic system, reactions, gaseous and solvent states, osmosis, electrolysis, elements of thermo-chemistry, chemical affinity, important methods of chemical technology.

Grade VI, 2 periods. Distribution of carbon in nature, organic

analysis, methods of determination, carbon, hydrogen and nitrogen, steam, freezing and boiling points, molecular and structural formulæ, distillation of petroleum, saturated and unsaturated compounds, homology, isomerism, alcohols, ethers, aldehydes and ketones, fats, soap, tanning, paper, plant fibres, oils, resin, camphor, dyes, cyanides, tar, albumen, assimilation and dissimilation, and brief history of chemistry.

Physics

Grade III, 3 periods; VII-VIII, 4 periods. Aim: Same as in the Gymnasium.

Mathematics

Aim: Same as in the Gymnasium.

Grade I, 4 periods; II, 5 periods; III, 3 periods. Same as in the Gymnasium without geometry and with the elements of algebra in grade III.

Grade IV, 4 periods. Review of algebra, fundamental operations, square roots, and irrational numbers.

Grade V, 4 periods. Algebra. Quadratic equations as in grade V of the Gymnasium. Planimetry: as in grade V of the Gymnasium; also application of geometrical principles. Stereometry: surfaces, determination of planes, correlative positions of planes, correlative positions of three planes, planes and straight lines in vertical position, point and plane, parallel planes, angle of a straight line and a plane, and angle of two planes.

Grade VI, 4 periods. Algebra and trigonometry as in the Gymnasium.

Grade VII, 3 periods. Analytical geometry as in grade VII of the Gymnasium. Stereometry: review of stereometry, right angle and oblique angle, convex polyhedrals, Euler's theorem, regular objects, prism, pyramid and truncated pyramid, and the stereometric contents of grade VIII of the Gymnasium.

Grade VIII, 3 periods. Algebra as in the Gymnasium. Analytical geometry: the rectangular and polar co-ordinate system; the parameter system of equations ($x = a + r \cos \theta$, $y = b + r \sin \theta$). The simplest equation systems for the circle, parabola, and ellipse. The equations of tangents of cones by differential computation. Complex numbers; real numbers and the non-soluble quadratic equivalent; the four fundamental oper-

ations with complex numbers; representation of complex numbers and their trigonometric forms; Moivee's theorem; the n th root.

Geometrical Drawing and Constructive Geometry

Aim: Study of the more important geometrical concepts and fundamentals and their application in constructive drawing; systematic development of the delineation of plane figures and their construction.

Geometrical Drawing

Grade I, 3 periods. The simplest plane figures; study of geometrical principles; computation of circumferences and areas of planes; congruence, similarity, and symmetry. Drawing: drawing of figures used in both simple and decorative forms with the aid of compass and rule, later in India ink.

Grade II, 2 periods. Cube, prism, pyramid, cylinder, cone, sphere; their study and analysis. The diagonal, diagonal plane, angle of inclination, dihedral angles, angles of bodies. Preparation of symmetrical objects. Calculation of surfaces and volume by measurements. Drawing: drawing of the above objects in various sizes and using the principles of parallel projection.

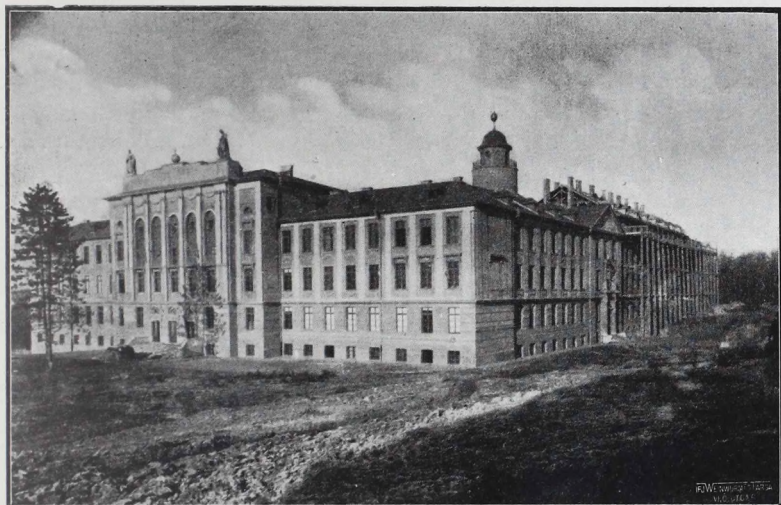
Grade III, 2 periods. Study of distances; copying of triangles, the characteristics of the isocles triangle; constructions. Construction of right triangles, oblique triangles and squares, parallelogram. Circumscribed and inscribed polygons. Drawing: accurate drawings of the above constructions.

Grade IV, 2 periods. The circle; chords and tangents; central and peripheral angles; correlative position of circles; construction of tangents to two circles; problems in finding the centre of a circle; accurate drawing of conics.

Descriptive Geometry

Grade V, 2 periods. Projection, parallel projection of right angles; system of auxiliary planes, unification of planes, points, projections of intersecting, parallel, or curved lines, projection of planes of straight lines, construction of the shadows of solids upon drawn planes; descriptions of prisms and the pyramid in its simplest positions.

Grade VI, 2 periods. Application of new planes for the determination of distances and angles of area. Description of a



PREMONSTRATENSIAN REALGYMNASIUM IN GÖDÖLLÖ



ENTRANCE HALL OF THE PREMONSTRATENSIAN REALGYMNASIUM IN GÖDÖLLÖ

straight line; a line and a plane in vertical position; generation and classification of surface; description of regular objects in the simplest position; description of a pyramid in common positions; intersection surfaces of planes; their shades and shadows; construction of the model of described plane surfaces; architectural plans; their reading.

Grade VII, 2 periods. Two images and a shadow of a plane; references of agreement; images of the circle; construction of the points of an ellipsis related to a circle; construction of the principal axis by the Ritz method; the relation of the images of two surfaces of a prism; generation of planes around a vertical axis; description of the sphere, spherical cone, and cylinder; their tangent surfaces; construction of the mutual points of surfaces and straight lines.

Grade VIII, 2 periods. Description of leaning cones and cylinders; cut surfaces of the sphere, cone, and cylinder; projection of a straight spherical cone, straight and leaning spherical cylinder into a plane; shades and shadows of a sphere, cone, and cylinder.

Philosophy

Grade VIII, 2 periods. As in Gymnasium.

Drawing

Grade I-VIII, 2 periods. As in Gymnasium.

Physical Training

Grade I-VIII, 2 periods. As in Gymnasium.

Singing

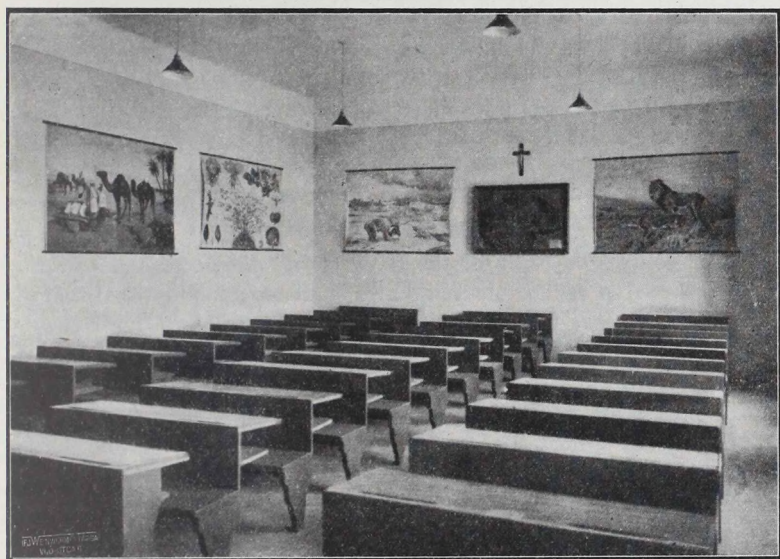
Grade I-II, 1 period. As in Gymnasium.

Hygiene

Grade VII-VIII, one semester, 2 periods. As in Gymnasium.

Optional Subjects

The secondary school offers subjects which may be voluntarily chosen by pupils; their study is not required and students get no credit in them. They are: (a) Conversation in German in all types of secondary schools; (b) French; (c) English; (d) Latin; (e) Greek only in these types offered, where it is not



A CLASSROOM IN THE PREMONSTRATENSIAN REALGYMNASIUM IN GÖDÖLLŐ



CHAPEL OF THE PREMONSTRATENSIAN REALGYMNASIUM IN GÖDÖLLŐ

compulsory; (f) laboratory work in biology; (g) laboratory work in physics; (h) laboratory work in chemistry; (i) shorthand writing; (j) drawing; (k) manual training; (l) classical songs; (m) music; (n) fencing; (o) dancing. Students are permitted to take only as many extraordinary subjects as do not interfere with their regular work.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The courses of study of the three types of schools define the desired goal of each subject and also emphasize the material that is to serve as a guide. For the purpose of developing this latter object, suggestions were issued in 1927 with the aim of providing a systematic distribution and development of each subject. Although these suggestions are issued as guides, they nevertheless are not intended to restrict the individual conceptions of teachers, but give ample opportunity to the educational insight of each teacher to manifest itself. They aim, rather, to stimulate teachers to study their subjects from the point of view of pedagogy and methods, to provide a chance to discover the relations of the various subjects, and to keep alive the idea that only systematic teaching, based upon a principle yet worked out in detail, can be successful.

Success in teaching is also ensured by semi-annual faculty meetings, by the reading of pedagogical periodicals, and by summer courses in pedagogy.

SCHOOL LIFE

School Discipline

Discipline in secondary schools is governed by a regulation, issued from time to time and modified according to advances in educational theory. It serves as a guide to the work of both teachers and students. The school year begins on September 1 and lasts until the end of June, being divided into two semesters and allowing for only two vacations of ten days each at Christmas and Easter. The length of a period is fifty minutes; they extend from eight to one o'clock with a ten-minute interval after each period, while the afternoon is devoted to extra subjects, play, and excursions. Students are enrolled on the first two days of July and September. Co-education is barred, but girls may

become private students by special permission. Only such students may be received into the first grade of the secondary school as have completed their ninth year and have been graduated from the fourth year of the elementary school in good standing or, in the absence of such a certificate, pass an examination in the subjects of the fourth grade. Each school prepares its own rules relative to the conduct of students. Teachers are responsible for the religious and patriotic training of students. At the head of each grade is a faculty advisor, who takes special care of his pupils, looking out for their best interests; it is his duty also to visit the classes of other teachers in the grade entrusted to him and the homes of students. In the interest of good discipline and scholarship the faculty from time to time holds conferences, in which conduct and progress of students are individually discussed. Discipline is in the hands of the faculty. Physical punishment is prohibited.

The various degrees of punishment, aside from the individual warning and admonishing by the teacher, are: 1. Reproval before the class by the faculty advisor. 2. Admonishment by the principal. 3. Reprimand before the class by the principal. 4. Calling before the principal in the presence of a parent, with the possible warning that another misdeed would mean dismissal from the institution. 5. Calling before the faculty and reproof or serious reprimand, possibly expulsion. 6. Expulsion from the institution in cases of misconduct likely to make the presence of the pupil detrimental and dangerous to his fellow students. 7. For undoubted moral degeneracy or incorrigibility, exclusion from the local or all the secondary schools of the country.

Moral Instruction

The law makes moral instruction obligatory and for this reason religion even in the State schools is included among the ordinary subjects, from the study of which no one can be exempted. Moral instruction is provided by the individual denominations. Instructors in religion are nominated by the respective denominations; their salaries are paid by the State if instruction is their chief occupation. For the deepening of the religious life of the pupils, religious groups or societies may be formed within the walls of the school.

At the end of the first half-year each student receives a report

and at the end of the second semester, a certificate regarding his conduct and scholastic progress. The scheme of grading for conduct is: exemplary (1), good (2), regular (3), irregular (4); for scholastic progress: excellent (1), good (2), satisfactory (3), and unsatisfactory (4).

Examinations at the end of the year for grading (except in cases of private students) are not recognized, for it is held that knowledge and ability of a student are not to be judged from incidental answers made under the nervous tension of examination but rather from the progress shown throughout the year. Instead, surveys are held in the various groups of subjects at the end of the year. These have a twofold purpose: first, to accustom students to a systematic review and a synthetic survey of the subjects, which at the same time serve as a gradual preparation for the maturity examinations; and second, to allow the school to show the progress of its work to parents and those interested by having its students give open answers to questions at a general meeting, thus giving account of their knowledge and progress before the general public.

Pupils for any reason unable to enrol as ordinary pupils may have private tuition. As a rule, such pupils do not attend the classes, but at stated times may take written and oral examinations at the school in which they are enrolled. In addition to the schooling and admission fees, they must pay examination fees.

MATURITY EXAMINATION (HIGHER CERTIFICATE MATRICULATION)

A pupil who has satisfactorily passed the eight grades of the secondary school is eligible to take the maturity examination. The object of the maturity examination is to prove whether or not knowledge and ability of a pupil, according to the curriculum of the secondary school, come up to the requirements for university work. These examinations are held by the faculties of accredited secondary schools. Since the Act of 1924, which reorganized the secondary schools and which is to be put gradually into force, the rules appointed by the Act of 1883 will be in effect for the next four years. According to this law, the maturity examination consists of a written and an oral examination. The subjects of the written examination are: A. In the Gymnasium: (a) an essay in Hungarian on a subject of Hungarian

literature; schools using other than the Hungarian language may use the language of instruction; (b) translation from Latin to Hungarian; (c) the solution of two problems in algebra and geometry. B. In the Realgymnasium: (a) same as in the Gymnasium; (b) composition in German on a subject taken from the sphere of the German language and literature or translation from Hungarian into German according to the choice of the student; (c) the solution of a problem in algebra and geometry. The subjects of the oral examination are: A. In the Gymnasium: (a) Hungarian language and literature; (b) Latin language and literature; (c) Hungarian and world history; (d) mathematics; (e) physics. B. In the Real school: (a) Hungarian language and literature; (b) German language and literature; (c) Hungarian and world history; (d) mathematics; (e) physics. In schools using other than the Hungarian language the language of instruction is also included among these subjects. A student failing in two or more subjects in the written examination is not eligible for the oral examination and can repeat his examination only a year later. If at this time he fails in more than one subject, he is no longer eligible for maturity examinations. A pupil who fails in more than one subject in the oral examination falls into the same class.

Since September, 1924, the holder of a higher (matriculation) certificate is admitted without further examination to any institution of university rank.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ÆSTHETIC SENSE

It is considered a matter of primary importance from a pedagogical and also from the national point of view to develop the interest of students in arts as early as possible. For this reason students and teachers make systematic trips to the museums and art exhibits. Instruction in drawing and the history of art as well as the use of slides and educational films also serve this purpose.

PARENT CONFERENCES

In order that the faculties may discuss certain educational problems with parents, at least two meetings of parents are held every year. At these meetings parents may contribute their ideas to the subjects under consideration. Furthermore, the principal and members of the faculty hold private conferences

with individual parents and to this end each teacher sets special conference hours.

EDUCATIONAL EXCURSIONS AND TRIPS

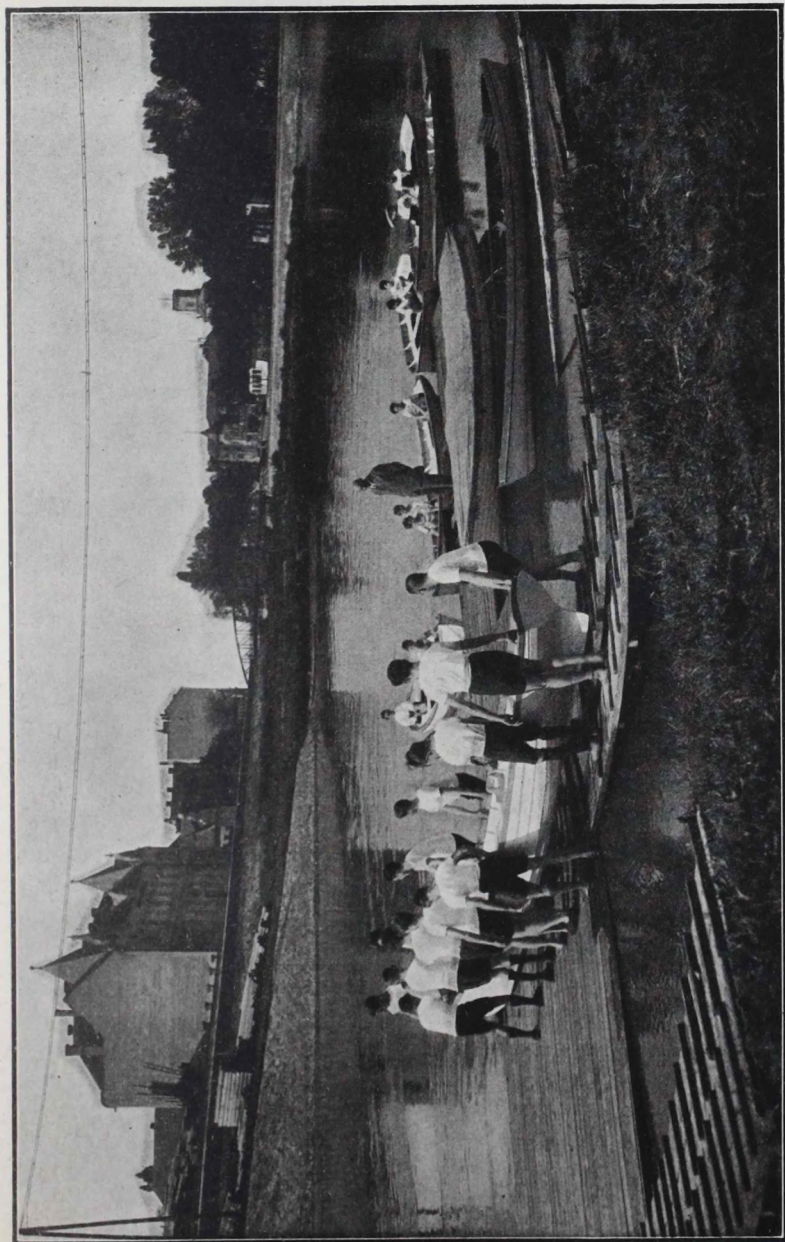
To increase the knowledge of pupils, especially of their country and race, and to develop them physically, teachers may conduct excursions during the year either in the immediate vicinity or at greater distances. Individual classes or the entire school may participate in such excursions. Excursions of one or two hours in the field of special subjects are made by the respective teachers in the town or its immediate vicinity. They aim to bring the student and the subjects studied into close touch with actual life. These excursions are considered as regular instruction and are therefore arranged to suit the schedule. Excursions of a whole or half day may be arranged for greater distances. Their program is to be organized in cycles so that at the end of a certain time the student can become thoroughly acquainted with his town and its vicinity. Excursions to more distant sections of the country may be made during the year. Trips to foreign countries may be arranged only by the permission of the Ministry.

STUDENTS' CLUBS

Under the supervision of the principal and the teachers students may form clubs. These may be scientific groups with their members drawn from the seventh and eighth grades, devoting themselves to the special study of certain fields; debating clubs with their members drawn from the sixth grade up, devoting themselves to literary activities and having their own supervised libraries; relief societies, which provide assistance for poorer pupils. Students of secondary schools may not be members of organizations outside their school.

SCHOLASTIC COMPETITIONS

On the model of athletic competitions, secondary schools carry on scholastic competitions. Their object is to give special ability an opportunity to manifest itself and to bring students of special ability to the attention of interested organizations. The national competition is held at Budapest during the last week of May of each year. This is preceded by competitions in the individual



BOAT CREW OF THE REAL SCHOOL IN GYÖR (RAAB)

schools for the selection of representatives in each subject. Each school is allowed to send only one representative in each subject to the national competition. The names of the winners are recorded and certificates of award are given by the Ministry.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND HYGIENE

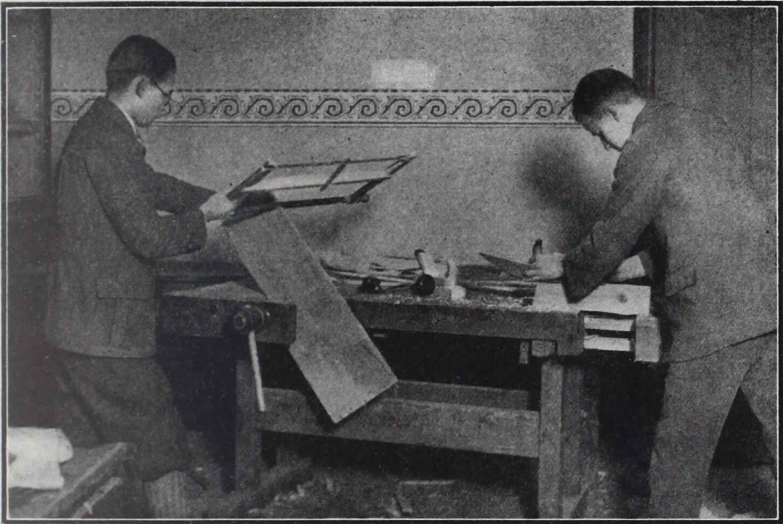
Along with instruction in other subjects run the courses in physical training. Sport clubs and Scout work supplement the courses. Teachers of physical training are required to take pertinent courses in schools provided for this purpose. The matter of physical training is in the hands of the National Council on Physical Education, which has advisory and, in some cases, executive powers.

In close connection with physical training is the care of the health of students. Special regulations exist with reference to the training of school physicians and teachers of hygiene in the secondary schools. Only persons having a diploma from one of the universities may be employed as school physicians and teachers of hygiene in secondary schools. The duties of school physicians are clearly specified and the courses in hygiene are given according to the curriculum determined by the state.

THE HOUSING OF, AND ASSISTANCE TO, STUDENTS

Inasmuch as the secondary schools of Hungary are predominantly day schools and students residing outside of the precinct of the school locate in private homes, there are comparatively few state schools of the boarding type. In denominational schools boarding homes or at least refectories are found in considerable numbers. There are also dormitories, which provide rooms but no board. These institutions are maintained from various sources such as state aid, donations, and funds. Private individuals may maintain boarding homes provided they comply with the requirements of the state. The organization and equipment of these homes vary according to circumstances, some aiming to meet only the basic needs and others extending their activities to meet the minutest desires of the students (sports, music, study of foreign languages, etc.).

There are also scholarships which aim to help poor but able students. The state expends vast sums for this purpose. This sum is supplemented by private and family funds and by the



CABINET-MAKING IN THE BUDAPEST PIARIST GYMNASIUM



MICROSCOPE WORK IN THE REAL SCHOOL AT SOPRON (ÖDENBURG)

funds of student aid clubs, while another form of aid is to exempt poor students from tuition fees in part or in whole; this is done on the basis of definite rules and regulations.

NATURE OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND THEIR RELATION TO THE STATE

In connection with the discussion of the Act of 1883 we have sketched the relation of secondary schools to the state. From this point of view, it was shown that secondary schools fall into three divisions: (a) those under direct state control; (b) those under state guidance; (c) those under state supervision.

To the first group belong two State and two royal Catholic Gymnasiums, 28 State and 5 royal Catholic Realgymnasiums, and 18 Real schools. State institutions are maintained by sums provided in the budget, and royal Catholic schools are maintained out of the Catholic school fund created out of the property of the Order of Jesuits, which was disbanded in 1773. In the second group there are at present 39 schools, distributed among Catholics, Jews, towns, and private individuals. The third group consists of autonomous denominational schools, of which at present there are 17 Reformed and 7 Lutheran institutions. These schools enjoy absolute autonomy in all matters and are supervised by an appointee of the Ministry.

ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Direct Administration

At the head of each secondary school is the principal, whose duties are to direct and guide scholastic and disciplinary affairs of the school, to take care of the buildings and all property, to control the libraries of teachers and students and also laboratories and collections, and to appoint persons to take care of them. He is chairman of the faculty meetings, represents the school before the authorities and the parents, and executes the regulations of higher authorities.

Royal District Superintendents

In accordance with their territorial distribution the secondary schools at present are divided into six districts. At the head of each district stands a royal district superintendent, who is in direct touch with the Ministry and, as the next lower authority,

directs and controls the pedagogical and administrative affairs of the secondary schools under state management or guidance located within his district. He must visit the schools in his district at least once annually. It is his duty to look into the work of the teachers, the scholastic progress and discipline of students, the state of buildings and equipment, and the business management of the principal. He must also hold a meeting with the faculty and inform them of his findings. The minutes of this meeting, together with his confidential remarks, must be submitted to the Ministry. The district superintendent, furthermore, presides at the oral maturity examinations, has final jurisdiction over the questions included in the written maturity examination, and forwards all appeals of the principals to the Ministry, sending with them his own opinions or recommendations.

The district superintendency was founded by the *Ratio Educationis* of 1777. Prior to the dismemberment of Hungary there were 12 such districts.

The superintendent, as a rule, has charge of the supervision of autonomous denominational secondary schools also—not *ex-officio* but rather on the basis of separate appointment by the Ministry. His visits are restricted solely to observation and control, since he has no power to interfere. He communicates his experiences to the faculties here also and submits the protocols to the Ministry and makes pertinent recommendations in whatever matters he deems the action of the Ministry necessary, upon which the Ministry comes into touch with school supporters of the respective denomination.

At the maturity examinations of the autonomous denominational secondary schools the royal superintendent does not preside; the denominational superintendent presides. At the same time, however, the Ministry is represented by an official who sees that the examinations are conducted according to regulations.

The highest authority over secondary schools is the Ministry of Cults and Public Instruction, which provides a special department to administer their affairs.

THE ACCREDITING OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Secondary schools are accredited when they are permitted to issue certificates recognized by the state. This right is con-

ferred by the Ministry upon all schools which fulfil the requirements of the law. These are: (1) guarantee of financial means to maintain the school; (2) the proper equipment of the building from pedagogical and hygienic viewpoints; (3) a curriculum that satisfies state requirements; (4) a faculty meeting the requirements of the law with reference to diplomas and number of teachers.

If a school fails to fulfil the requirements of the law, the state has the right to withdraw the accrediting of the school upon proper warning. Certificates of such schools are not recognized by the state and such schools may not hold maturity examinations.

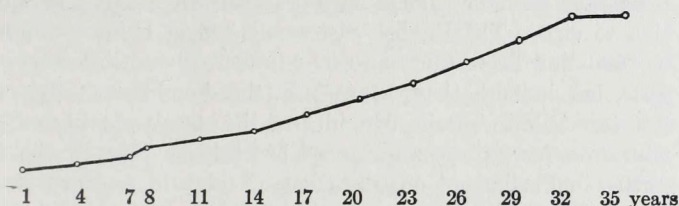
Associations and private individuals may maintain schools without having them accredited. Students of such institutions, if they desire certificates recognized by the state, must appear for examination from year to year at an institution accredited by the State. The State controls these non-accredited schools also and requires that their teachers hold proper credentials and that buildings meet the pedagogical and hygienic standards set by the law.

STATE AID FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Out of the 118 secondary schools for boys in dismembered Hungary the state maintains only 48; the rest are maintained by denominations, towns, societies, or private persons. Since these are very often unable wholly to maintain their schools out of their own means and since they must be maintained because of their historical past and the present cultural needs of the nation, the state provides aid for schools that ask for it. The amount of state aid and its conditions are stipulated in special contracts. Among these conditions are, for instance, that the curriculum of the state is required in schools receiving state aid and that a certain number of the teachers are to be appointed by the state. State aid is of two kinds. First, the state may annually give a certain amount, which is to be used to defray material needs, and second, it may make up the salary of teachers by bringing it upon a par with the salary of state employed teachers. This latter means inflicts a considerable burden upon the state treasury inasmuch as the income of secondary schools since the World War has fallen so low that they can cover only from 5 to 40 per

cent of the salaries of the teachers and the rest must be covered by the State.

SALARIES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
ACCORDING TO YEARS OF SERVICE



III. SECONDARY EDUCATION OF GIRLS

PROGRESS OF THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS IN HUNGARY

Until the rise of the modern feminist movement the energies of educators were directed almost entirely to the education of boys. The feminist movement, which arose in the middle of the nineteenth century, at once linked the question of higher education for girls with the scheme for securing equal rights for women. In fact, education of girls from the elementary school to the university was considered a condition of the possibility of equal status.

The Hungarian feminist movement is almost the oldest in Europe. The movement was started during the great national awakening of 1790 and was called into being by the Germanizing absolutism of Joseph II; it brought to the fore all the sound ideas of modern feminism. At once three Hungarian pamphlets appeared in one year, and each attempted to prove the political rights of women on the basis of their cultural strength and desires. These Hungarian documents of the feminist movement appeared two years before *A Vindication of the Rights of Women* by Mary Wollstonecraft, the founder of feminism in the West. It is unusual that both these movements brought the matter of a national educational program and the rights of women into very close connection with each other. This movement in Hungary was then followed by such an increased demand for higher education among women that in the forties of the last century women applied for admission to the university.

All this remained a dream, however, because until the seventies of the last century higher education for girls was unorganized. It was carried on sporadically, mostly by Catholic nuns and by private individuals; both the Catholic and the Protestant Churches attempted to offer something more than an elementary education to girls. The English Sisters worked in Hungary as early as 1630, and Protestants also maintained private institutions for girls, but in both these types only the daughters of the nobility were able to enrol. The idea of the state's providing higher education for girls was advanced as early as 1791 by the committee in Parliament on education. A plan of reform was proposed by the chairman of the committee, Count Anthony Brunsvick, father of Theresa Brunsvick, who started the first kindergarten in Hungary, and complained that education of girls was in the hands of foreigners, and urged a national program of education for girls. Both the *Ratio Educationis* of 1806 and the Parliament of 1825 considered these questions but effected no tangible progress. The economic transformation of the nineteenth century made higher schools for girls inevitable, and in 1868 the first middle schools for girls were started, which immediately flourished. Professional schools for girls for the present were represented only by normal schools.

The need of having schools alongside of middle and normal schools in order to extend an education to girls parallel to that of boys was very strongly felt. Consequently, in 1875 the first higher school for girls was set up by the state at Budapest, on the heels of which there followed similar schools set up by towns and denominations.

These schools were designed to serve as secondary schools. Preceded by a preparatory course, which was the equivalent of the sixth grade in the elementary school, was a four-year secondary course with a full and complete curriculum; this was followed by two more years, each with a completed curriculum. The following subjects were taught: Hungarian, German, and French language and literature, history, physics and chemistry, biology and physiology, geography, mathematics, housekeeping, education, drawing, physical training, music, and needlework; English and freehand drawing were offered as extraordinary subjects. The number of periods per week was 24.

Excellent and well thought out as this curriculum was, it did

not meet the needs of the age. The poorer elements predominant in the cultured middle class could not afford to send their girls to higher schools merely for culture; they wanted girls to prepare for professions. Hence these schools were forced to approach more and more the curriculum of the more practical middle and normal schools.

Meanwhile the ever-growing feminist movement demanded that the standard of girls' education should be raised. Following a similar movement in Germany, the Hungarian Minister, Julius Wlassics, in 1895 persuaded the King to issue a decree permitting women to be enrolled in the faculties of medicine, philosophy, and pharmacy of the universities, and providing also that, until further changes were made, girls could take maturity examinations at boys' Gymnasiums as private pupils. At first special preparatory Gymnasium courses were offered, but these were transformed into girls' Gymnasiums in 1901.

In the absence of a unified organization these Gymnasiums assumed various forms, and their curriculum underwent constant changes so that a normative school for girls could not be crystallized. For this reason the Regulation of 1916 attempted to bring about a unified system with three types: a higher school for girls, a higher commercial school for girls, and a Gymnasium for girls. Two types, if desired, could be included in one institution, but only the Gymnasium course could prepare for university work. This change did not bring the results that were hoped for, and in 1924 it was felt that a painstaking study and reform should be made of the problem of higher education for girls. The chief trouble was found in the fact that the matter of girls' education was dealt with through decrees, and because of the changeability of decrees, problems were not given a chance to crystallize and the situation remained unclarified. The permanence of a regulation by law was needed.

THE PRINCIPLES OF THE REFORM OF 1926

The fate of the system established in 1916 showed that to include more than one type in one institution was inexpedient and, on the other hand, girls could not be permitted to flock to the Gymnasium as they were doing, irrespective of whether they desired to attend the university later or not. It was clear that, on the model of the boys' schools, various well-differentiated

types must be created to take care of the special needs and inclinations of girls, without allowing this differentiation in any way to hinder girls from admission to colleges of university rank. Consequently, the new law was based on the following fundamental principles: (1) differentiation of types; (2) equal recognition as qualification for entrance to the university; (3) consideration, in choice of subjects, of the special aptitudes of girls.

It is not to be doubted that inclinations and aptitudes of girls, as of boys, vary highly and therefore the school system must be differentiated in order that girls may find the type that meets their special needs. In conformity with this principle the law, to supplement the existing Gymnasium, created the Lyceum for girls, which lays chief stress upon modern languages and sciences and omits Latin. The identity of subjects of a nationalistic nature taught commonly by both types will always ensure their equality of standard.

For this reason these differing types create no difficulties in the choice of a profession; graduates of both may enter schools of university rank and, if at any time a student desires to switch to the other type, she can do so by taking examinations in the subjects that constitute the difference in the two types. It must be borne in mind, however, that neither type is primarily designed to be a special preparatory course for the university. The primary task of both is to train students for independent mental work, that is, to create a mental capacity and maturity to pursue further study in any line, if desired. The curricula of the Gymnasiums and Lyceums aim to accomplish this task.

This differentiation, naturally, must not stop with the organization of types which prepare for university work. There is need for a type of secondary school in which higher education may be given to girls who do not intend to enrol in any university but desire an education which would fit them to take their place in the family, the home, and social life. This need was met by the reorganization of the older higher school for girls under the name of college for girls. This school is called upon to accommodate the greater majority of girls because their courses are not too difficult even for girls of average ability and they are adapted to the educational needs of the family and social life.

Because of fundamental differences in the nature of men and women, the courses in the secondary schools are not identical

for both sexes, but an effort is made to meet the special exigencies of both. This does not mean, however, that education of girls is of lower standard than that of boys, for even with differences in the subject matter the curricula of both are kept on the same level. This flexibility in the selection of subject matter makes possible the stress of subjects in the girls' schools specifically suitable to the minds of girls, such as drawing, music, needlework, and a deeper study of the arts.

THE ACT OF 1926

The law defines the functions of the secondary schools for girls as follows: to train pupils to be good citizens, to give them a liberal education, and to fit them to pursue independent study in any higher educational institution or university.

The Gymnasium for girls, stressing Latin and modern languages, offers the following regular subjects: (a) religion and ethics; (b) Hungarian language and literature or, in schools of another language of instruction, the language and literature in use; (c) Latin language and literature; (d) German language and literature; (e) French language and literature; (f) Hungarian and world history; (g) geography; (h) natural science, chemistry, and hygiene; (i) physics; (j) mathematics; (k) philosophy; (l) drawing; (m) music; (n) physical training.

The Lyceum for girls, stressing modern languages, offers the same courses as the Gymnasium, with the addition of English and Italian languages and literatures and the history of art and the omission of Latin.

Opportunity must be given for the study of Greek as an extra subject in the Gymnasiums and of Latin in the Lyceums. The number of periods per week is set at a maximum of 28 for the first four grades and 30 for the rest. A comparison of the curricula of the Lyceum for girls and the Real school for boys reveals the fact that the former is not a copy of the latter. The Real school was originally organized to prepare students for the technical university and lays chief stress upon the natural sciences. The Lyceum, on the contrary, is characterized by its emphasis upon modern languages, while at the same time the natural sciences are given no less a conspicuous place than in the Gymnasium for girls. In this way the tendency of education of girls in the future will be principally of a literary and artistic

nature, especially since most of the secondary schools have switched over to the Lyceum type.

If at all possible, Gymnasiums for girls are located in towns where there also are Lyceums. Each type consists of eight grades; no more than 40 students may be enrolled in one class. Only students who have completed their tenth year and have received a certificate from the fourth grade of the elementary school are accepted. Aside from the teacher of physical training, who is always a woman, there must be as many women teachers as there are classes. The certificates of maturity, granted by girls' schools, are on a par with those of boys' schools; nevertheless the Ministry is empowered to limit the number of girls to be enrolled in certain faculties of the university.

COLLEGES FOR GIRLS

The colleges for girls, established by the Act of 1926, aim to give higher cultural training of a kind that has reference to the peculiar mission of women and their rôle in the home and society. Thus, as secondary institutions, they gather students who strive for a higher culture but do not desire to pursue university work.

The regular subjects of the colleges for girls are: (a) religion and ethics; (b) Hungarian language and literature or, in schools of another language of instruction, the language and literature in use; (c) German language and literature; (d) French, English, or Italian language and literature; (e) Hungarian and world history; (f) geography; (g) natural science, chemistry, and hygiene; (h) physics; (i) mathematics; (j) psychology and education; (k) drawing and history of art; (l) housekeeping and economics; (m) needlework; (n) singing; (o) physical training.

Extra subjects, such as modern languages, shorthand, type-writing, music, and so forth, are also offered. Inasmuch as the college is easier and more practical than either of the other two types of girls' schools, the number of periods per week in the first and second grades is a maximum of 24 and in the rest, 28. Only such students may be enrolled as have finished their tenth year and have satisfactorily completed the fourth grade of the elementary school. Upon completion of the eight grades, the student is eligible for maturity examinations. Whoever has

passed these examinations is eligible to enter all higher institutions of learning to which the certificate of maturity from any girls' secondary school entitles the holder, with the exceptions of the scientific and technical universities.

It must be made clear why these colleges for girls are not listed among the secondary schools. While upon first sight they bear many resemblances to the secondary schools, in the first place, they do not prepare their pupils for the universities as do secondary schools; in the second place, the field covered by various subjects, as will be seen, does not come up to a standard which would be sufficient basis for continued university work.

Nevertheless, the creation of this type was motivated by serious reasons. Statistics show that only about two-thirds of the girls enrolled in the Gymnasiums ever attend the university. For instance, in the school year 1924-1925 there were 1,752 students enrolled in the first grade, while only 557 attended the eighth grade; in other words, about two-thirds dropped out and either enrolled in another type of school or were satisfied with the education received before leaving. This experience shows that girls who cannot stand the strain and pace of the secondary school and yet desire more education than the middle school can give need this special type of school, which will meet their peculiar needs.

THE CURRICULA OF GIRLS' SCHOOLS

The time-schedules of the girls' schools are as follows:

THE GIRLS' GYMNASIUM

GRADE	Religion	Hungarian	Latin	German	French	History	Geography	Natural History Chemistry Hygiene	Physics	Mathematics	Philosophy	Drawing	Singing	Physical Training	Total
I.....	2	5	..	4	3	3	..	4	..	2	2	3	28
II.....	2	5	..	4	3	3	..	4	..	2	2	3	28
III.....	2	4	5	3	..	3	2	3	..	2	2	2	28
IV.....	2	3	5	3	..	2	2	..	2	3	..	2	2	2	28
V.....	2	3	5	3	5	3	..	2	..	3	2	..	28
VI.....	2	3	5	3	4	3	..	3	..	3	..	2	..	2	30
VII.....	2	3	5	3	3	3	..	3	3	3	2	30
VIII.....	2	3	5	2	3	3	2	..	4	2	2	2	30
Total.....	16	29	30	25	15	17	12	14	9	25	2	10	10	16	230

THE GIRLS' LYCEUM

GRADE	Religion	Hungarian	German French	English Italian	History	History of Art	Geography Natural History	Chemistry Hygiene	Physics	Mathematics	Philosophy	Drawing	Singing	Physical Training	Total
I.....	2	5	4	3	3	..	4	..	2	2	3	28
II.....	2	5	4	3	3	..	4	..	2	2	3	28
III.....	2	3	3	4	3	..	2	2	..	3	..	2	2	2	28
IV.....	2	3	3	5	2	..	2	..	2	3	..	2	2	2	28
V.....	2	4	4	5	3	2	..	3	..	3	..	1	1	2	30
VI.....	2	4	4	4	4	2	..	3	..	3	..	1	1	2	30
VII.....	2	3	3	3	3	2	..	4	3	3	2	2	30
VIII.....	2	4	3	3	3	2	2	..	4	3	2	2	30
Total...	16	31	28	24	18	8	12	18	9	26	4	10	10	18	232

THE GIRLS' COLLEGE

GRADE	Religion	Hungarian	German French	English Italian	History	Geography Natural History	Chemistry Hygiene	Physics	Mathematics	Psychology Education	Drawing, History of Art	Housekeeping Economy	Needlework	Singing	Physical Training	Total
I.....	2	4	3	3	3	..	2	..	2	2	3	24
II.....	2	3	3	2	2	..	3	..	2	..	2	2	3	24
III.....	2	3	3	3	..	2	2	..	3	..	2	..	2	2	2	26
IV.....	2	3	3	3	3	..	2	..	2	..	2	2	2	2	2	28
V.....	2	3	3	3	3	..	2	..	2	..	2	2	2	2	2	28
VI.....	2	3	3	3	3	..	2	..	2	..	2	2	2	2	2	28
VII.....	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	..	2	2	28
VIII.....	2	3	3	3	3	2	..	3	2	3	2	2	28
Total.....	16	25	24	18	15	11	13	6	19	3	16	6	12	12	18	214

PART THREE

UNIVERSITIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTIONS

I. HUNGARIAN EDUCATIONAL POLICY AFTER THE WORLD WAR

The Hungarian educational policy, instituted by the far-reaching activities of Count Kuno Klebelsberg following the War, is based upon two fundamental principles, as we may gather from his speeches in Parliament. First, it desires to raise the educational standard of the masses; this object is served by the latest laws relating to elementary and middle schools. Second, it aims to produce professional men in all fields of science, who as experts will be able to solve the great cultural, economic, technical, and health problems of the country by virtue of their training and their knowledge. It is this object that the new conception of cultural policy desires to accomplish and for which a program for the systematic development of the various branches of learning has been elaborated. The present resources of the country have been fully taken into account in preparing this program, and the plan has been developed and supplemented judiciously.

Of course, attention was first directed to the building up of the universities, the chief centers of knowledge. Inasmuch as the Universities of Kolozsvár and Pozsony were lost as a result of the Treaty of Trianon, the nation had to make great sacrifices, first of all in the relocation and re-equipment of these institutions. It was thus that the universities at Szeged and Pécs came into being with new buildings, clinics, and other institutes to take their place next to the ancient Peter Pázmány University at Budapest and the University of Debrecen, founded in 1912. At the same time the vast clinical plant of the University of Debrecen was erected. At present there are plans to unite all the scientific

institutions of the University of Budapest and locate them in new buildings on the shore of the Danube.

The program of the new cultural policy includes the organization and establishment of institutions for scientific research. The erection of the Astronomical Observatory at Sváb Hill and the Biological Research Station at Tihany followed each other rapidly, and an institution for geophysical research has also been set up at Lágymányos, a ward of Budapest. The building programs of both the National Archives and the National Museum have reached completion. New life seems to have been breathed into the great national collections (museums, archives, libraries) by their amalgamation into an autonomous organization known as the *National Association of Museums and Collections*.

Within the last few years a third aim has been to create permanent contacts with great cultural nations and their institutions, to train young Hungarian scholars in great Western centres, and to bring about the possibility of continuous research abroad. This aim is being served by the *Collegia Hungarica* in Vienna, Berlin, Zurich, and Rome. It is also aided by the many fellowships which the Ministry has provided for students who desire to continue their higher education abroad free of financial care.

The increase of professorships in the new universities and of scientific positions in museums, archives, libraries, and institutes of research has made it possible for a great number of scholars to devote their whole lives to research. In order to ensure the intellectual and material interests of learned organizations, a *National Association of Scientific Societies and Institutions* was organized in 1923, which soon established a press for its publications. And in order to determine a program for Hungarian scientific and technical research, the *National Congress of Natural, Medical, and Technical Sciences* was held in 1926. Its beneficent influence upon scientific life is felt in every way.

II. UNIVERSITIES

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN PETER PÁZMÁNY UNIVERSITY OF BUDAPEST

Hungarian rulers in the Middle Ages established three universities (Pécs, Buda, and Pozsony), which, however, could not thrive on account of the troubled conditions of the country. The present university was brought into being by the Counter-Refor-

mation, having been founded by Cardinal Peter Pázmány in 1635. It was established at Nagyszombat with a faculty of theology and philosophy and was enlarged in 1667 by the addition of a faculty of law. Maria Theresa in 1769 proclaimed it a royal institution and, adding a faculty of medicine, raised it to the status of a full university, removing it in 1777 to Buda, the centre of the country. By order of Joseph II it was later removed to Pest. In 1848 it was brought under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction. Its organization was established by the Ordinance of 1849. The university assumed the name of its founder in 1921. By the gifts of Peter Pázmány and various kings, the university has considerable property of its own in the form of land, forests, buildings, printing press, and bonds. A good portion of the university's endowed property (1,974 acres of farm land and 13,759 acres of forest), which falls within territory separated from Hungary, has been confiscated by the Czechoslovakian government. The university has appealed to the International Court at The Hague to annul the confiscation of its property on the basis of Article 250 of the Treaty of Trianon, according to which the property of Hungarian nationals may not be confiscated, and of Article 246, which stipulates that both natural and fictitious persons fall under the classification of Hungarian nationals. The university as an organization is an independent fictitious person and is to be differentiated from the Hungarian government. On the basis of the register of legal property which substantiates this status, the university regards itself as the sole and rightful owner of the property under question in Czechoslovakia.

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN FRANCIS JOSEPH UNIVERSITY OF SZEGED
(FORMERLY OF KOLOZSVÁR)

In the midst of the wars with Turkey, the first prince of Transylvania, John Sigismund, opened a college at Gyulafehérvár (*Alba Julia*) in 1560. Other similar schools were subsequently founded by Stephen Bathory at Kolozsvár in 1581. In 1698 the Jesuits founded a university at Kolozsvár, which, after the dissolution of the order, existed only as a college. Finally, the law of 1872 established a university at Kolozsvár, which was divided into four faculties: law and political science, medicine, philosophy, language and history, and mathematics and natural sciences.

The university assumed its name in 1881 by permission of the king, Francis Joseph. The university soon received excellent buildings and rich equipment from the State.

When the Roumanians occupied Kolozsvár in 1918, they took into their possession all the buildings, clinics, institutions, and libraries of the university, which had been growing up during a half century, and in 1920 the Roumanian king, amidst great celebrations, opened it as a Roumanian university. Former Hungarian professors were expelled from the country by the Roumanian government. These for a time lived in Budapest along with the expelled professors of the University of Pozsony and held their lectures in that city until the University of Kolozsvár was located at Szeged and that of Pozsony, at Pécs.

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN ELIZABETH UNIVERSITY OF PÉCS (FORMERLY OF POZSONY)

A few years after the establishment of the University of Kolozsvár the idea of a third university was broached. During the eighties the Ministry began to consider it seriously. It was forced to do so by the overcrowded conditions of the faculties of law, medicine, and science at the University of Budapest. The larger outlying cities had for years been in competition to get the new university. In 1912 new universities were finally founded at Pozsony and Debrecen, having been made necessary in part to further Hungarian scientific and intellectual life, to decentralize higher education and in part to decrease the unusually large number of students studying at Budapest. The assurance of continued succession among professors and a healthy competition among universities were also expected.

Pozsony had in the course of history been the seat of a number of schools. It was here, in the sixteenth century, that King Matthias established the *Academia Istropolitana* of university rank. Maria Theresa, at the end of the eighteenth century, established an academy with faculties of philosophy and law, which after 1874 functioned only as a law school. The university established in 1912, which received its name from Queen Elizabeth, consisted of faculties of law and political science, medicine, philosophy, philology and history, and mathematics, natural sciences, and agriculture. The faculty of law was opened in 1914, the faculties of medicine and philosophy in 1918. The Czech

government in 1919 occupied and took possession of the already thriving and excellently equipped university, putting an end to the Hungarian faculties and even dissolving the faculty of law. In place of the Hungarian university it put the Czechoslovak Comenius university. Some of the Hungarian professors were repeatedly arrested and were kept in jail without proper warrant.

The expelled professors for a time held their lectures at Budapest until the university was re-established at Pécs. Here a Lutheran theological school was added to the existing faculties of law, medicine, and philosophy.

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN COUNT STEPHEN TISZA UNIVERSITY OF DEBRECEN

As early as the Reformation Debrecen had a college which in 1588 became autonomous by adopting the rules of the University of Wittenberg. Its catalogue, from this time on, contains a complete list of enrolled students. The school taught Reformed theology, philosophy, and, beginning with 1800, also law. The Trans-Tibiscan Synod of the Reformed Church had for decades striven to elevate its school to the rank of a university. This desire was fulfilled by the law of 1912, which established a state university at Debrecen with the faculties of Reformed theology, law and political science, medicine, philosophy, philology and history, mathematics and natural sciences. The erection of the clinics, delayed somewhat by the War, is now completed, and the university has a splendid campus at its service, located on the edge of the city in the midst of a big forest.

Accordingly, since the World War the Hungarian nation has set up three universities in all at the cost of the greatest financial effort. This had to be done for the sake of distributing students and elevating the standard of instruction, to make possible the proper allocation of the succession of professorships, and to decentralize intellectual life of the nation by creating large outlying centres of learning. The four universities of Greater Hungary, therefore, live on and function in dismembered Hungary also. As Count Klebelsberg has said, "If Prussian politicians after Jena counteracted their political defeat and ruin by founding universities, then we cannot add to our great political catastrophe by permitting the reunion of our universities."

UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION

The various faculties of the university are composed of the professors and matriculated students. The faculty consists of ordinary and extraordinary professors appointed by the governor on recommendation by the Minister and the faculty, of private docents confirmed by the Minister, and, finally, of instructors. These are assisted by adjuncts and assistants appointed by the faculty and confirmed by the Minister.

The ordinary and the extraordinary professors (who cannot exceed the regular professors in number) and two representatives of the private docents constitute the governing body of the faculty. At their head is the Dean, who is elected from the midst of the regular professors by the governing body and whose duty it is to preside at the faculty meetings.

At the head of the university is the Rector, who is elected from one of the four faculties successively each year by the electors of each faculty. He is the president of the university Senate, the chief judicatory authority, consisting of the Rector of the previous school year (ex-Rector), the Deans, and the Deans of the previous school year (ex-Deans). The director of the central office of the university Rector is the secretary of the Senate. At the head of the Registration Office is the Quaestor (Registrar).

Hungarian universities have self-governing rights (autonomy), which include the following:

- a.* The university elects its own Rector and Deans.
- b.* The university itself nominates candidates for vacant professorships either by invitation or by competition.
- c.* It empowers young scholars to lecture within certain fields in the capacity of private docents.
- d.* The university determines its own courses and curricula.
- e.* The university admits candidates for doctorates, examines, and initiates them.
- f.* The Rector of the university exercises the right of filling all administrative offices and positions in the university, except the head of the library, the business office, and positions falling within the right of the head of the State. In these latter cases the Senate enjoys only the right of recommendation.
- g.* The Rector or Senate exercises disciplinary rights over professors, officers, students, and all employees of the university.

h. The university Senate or faculties may discuss and decide all matters of general interest to the university, administrative, educational, or disciplinary.

i. The university may maintain international contacts; it is represented abroad by its Senate.

CURRICULUM AND EXAMINATIONS

The Faculty of Roman Catholic Theology

The curriculum and plan of examinations at the Faculty of Roman Catholic Theology of the Peter Pázmány University of Budapest was royally sanctioned in 1917.

The course extends over five years. The curriculum is as follows: First year: Oriental languages, philosophy, Old Testament, New Testament literature. Second year: Philosophy, Old Testament exegesis, New Testament, fundamentals of dogmatics. Third year: Systematic theology, Church history, homiletics, sociology. Fourth year: Systematic theology, ethics, education, catechetics, homiletic exercises. Fifth year: Church law, pastoral theology, education, Church art and archaeology, homiletics, and catechetical exercises.

There are twelve chairs. Seminary courses are offered in the main subjects, which are not required for a diploma. Four semesters of seminary work, however, are required of candidates for the Doctor's degree, and this must be completed prior to the fourth examination. Furthermore, four examinations and a printed thesis are required for a Doctor's degree. The examinations may be taken in any order provided the student has already studied the specified subjects of the examination. The first examination may be taken during the third year. Each examination, conducted by four professors, lasts two hours. The examinations are divided thus: (1) Oriental languages, Old and New Testament; (2) Church history, Church law; (3) fundamentals of dogmatics and systematic theology; (4) canonical law and pastoral theology.

The Faculty of Reformed Theology

The curriculum and plan of examinations at the Faculty of Reformed Theology of the Count Stephen Tisza University of Debrecen was sanctioned by the King in 1916.

The course extends over four years, two of which may be spent in any Protestant Theological Seminary either in Hungary or abroad. Students from a Reformed Theological Seminary in Hungary may be transferred to the Faculty of Reformed Theology at the end of any semester. Each student must take at least twenty semester hours of work. The courses are as follows: Hebrew, Old Testament exegesis, theology of the Old Testament, Old Testament literature, New Testament Greek, New Testament exegesis, New Testament theology, New Testament literature, dogmatics, philosophy of religion, life of Jesus, apologetics, Christian ethics, encyclopedia of theological sciences, history of religion, history of Christianity, Hungarian Protestant Church history, literature of the Hungarian Protestant Church, introduction to pastoral theology and home missions, home missions, pastoral theology, statistics, homiletics, liturgics, catechetics, Church law, history of dogma, symbolics, practical exegesis, history of philosophy, education, seminar in philosophy, economics, common law, public health.

At the end of the fourth semester each student is required to take a written and oral examination. The subjects of the oral examination are: (1) Old Testament literature; (2) New Testament literature; (3) history of Christianity; (4) history of religion; (5) philosophy of religion. For the written examination a student selects one of three problems given in each of the above subjects.

The Faculty of Theology at a meeting in June votes individually upon each candidate for a diploma. With a diploma students may take their first qualifying examination before a committee of Synod, and after two years of field work they may apply for their final qualifying examination. Students desiring the Doctor's degree must take a separate examination before the Faculty of Theology. The following may be candidates for the doctorate: (1) those who obtained their diplomas from this Faculty; (2) those who, upon completing a Theological Seminary, spent at least a year as regular students either in this Faculty or in the Faculty of a university abroad.

The examination for the doctorate must be taken before the Faculty of Reformed Theology from one of the following groups of studies: (1) Old Testament science; (2) New Testament science; (3) Church history; (4) systematic theology and Chris-

tian ethics; (5) practical theology and Church law. The basis of the examination is a written and published thesis upon a subject in the student's chosen field. The time of the oral examination is a minimum of one hour and a maximum of two hours.

The Faculty of Lutheran Theology

At the Faculty of Lutheran Theology of the Elizabeth University of Pécs, established in 1923, the curriculum and plan of examination, which were sanctioned by the Regent in 1926, are today in force. According to this the course consists of four years. A student must take at least twenty semester hours and pass an examination in each at the end of each semester. The subjects offered are encyclopedia of theological science, Old Testament exegesis, introduction to Old Testament, Old Testament theology, Hebrew, New Testament exegesis, introduction to New Testament, New Testament theology, life of Jesus, New Testament Greek, Church history, history of Hungarian Protestantism and Church law, history of dogma, systematic theology, symbolics, dogmatics, ethics, apologetics, catechetics, liturgics, homiletics, pastoral theology, home and foreign missions, modern Church life, practical exegesis, Church law, history of religion, psychology of religion, philosophy of religion, religious education, history of philosophy, seminar in philosophy, Christian character building, economics, Hungarian common law, a seminar in Hungarian history, history of literature, or history of culture, public health, German, biblical Slovak language, and Church Latin. At the end of the fourth semester an examination is taken in encyclopedia of theological sciences, introduction to the Old and New Testaments, Church history, history of religion and education. At the end of the eighth semester another examination must be taken, consisting of a written and an oral part. The written work is done in the fields of biblical and systematic theology. The candidate must show by his work that he is satisfactorily acquainted with theological sciences, knows modern theology and is capable of independent judgment. The oral examination consists of three parts: (I) biblical exegesis and theology; (II) systematic theology; (III) history of Hungarian Protestantism, Church law, catechetics, liturgics, homiletics, pastoral theology. A period of two to four weeks intervenes between examinations.

The Faculty of Theology is entitled to grant Doctor's degrees for either work done or *honoris causa*. The degree of Doctor of Theology may be obtained only four years after completion of the courses of the Faculty of Theology on the basis of the following groups of studies: Old Testament exegesis and theology; New Testament exegesis and theology, history of the Christian Church, systematic theology, practical theology, educational law and history of Hungarian Protestantism, general science of religion, and religious education. The examination for the Doctor's degree is both written and oral. The written examination consists of a published independent and scholarly dissertation, which is evidence of the candidate's knowledge of his field and of the scientific method and thus may be regarded as a contribution to Protestant theology.

The Faculty of Law and Political Science

The curriculum and plan of examinations of the Faculty of Law and Political Science is regulated substantially by the Royal Decree of 1883. This stipulates that during the four-year course there are two examinations. The subjects of the first examination, which may be taken at the end of the second semester, are (a) Roman law and (b) history of Hungarian law. The second examination, which may be taken at the end of the fourth semester, consists of (a) Hungarian common law and (b) economics and finances. The subjects of the qualifying examination in law are (a) Hungarian civil law in connection with Austrian civil law, for practical purposes; (b) criminal law and procedure; (c) commercial law; (d) civil procedure; (e) Hungarian administrative law. The subjects of the State examination in political science are: (a) constitution and government; (b) Hungarian administrative law; (c) principles of financial law and institutions; (d) canon law; (e) Hungarian governmental statistics of population, education, and economics.

For the doctorate in law three examinations and a dissertation, for the doctorate in political science two examinations and a dissertation, are required. The examinations in law are: I. (a) Roman law, (b) canon law, (c) legal philosophy and international law. II. (a) Hungarian common law, (b) administrative and fiscal law, (c) politics, (d) Hungarian criminal law and procedure. III. (a) Hungarian civil law, (b) Austrian civil

law, (c) Hungarian civil procedure, (d) commercial law. The examinations in political science include: I. (a) legal philosophy and international law, (b) canon law, (c) Hungarian common law, (d) politics. II. (a) economics and finances, (b) statistics, (c) Hungarian administrative and financial law.

This system of examinations involved very great disadvantages, namely, onesidedness in training and the fact that the third year was not used for research by students, since no examinations were required. The regulation of 1911 tried, as an experiment and within a limited sphere, to remedy this defect by introducing a third examination, the subjects of which were Hungarian civil law, and criminal law and procedure. Reforms in this respect, however, are not yet completed; in fact, a basic reform of the entire system has been pending for years.

A significant stride forward was made in 1912 and 1913 when the doctorate in law was made a requirement for judges, while hitherto it was required only of lawyers, and when the practical qualifying examinations for judges and lawyers were unified.

The Faculty of Medicine

The training of doctors underwent a radical reform in 1875. The course became one of ten semesters with twenty semester hours of obligatory work. At the end of the second semester there was an examination in mineralogy, botany, and zoology and at the end of the fourth semester, in physics, chemistry, anatomy, physiology, and general pathology. At the completion of the course the first examination embraced practical anatomy, physiology, pharmacology, pathological anatomy, and the second consisted of practical examination in the chief clinical subjects. The concluding theoretical examination consisted of therapeutics, surgery, legal medicine, and public health administration. On passing these examinations, a candidate became a doctor of medicine.

This system was in force until 1901, when a period of internship was made obligatory in the interests of practical instruction. The examinations in natural sciences were dropped, an examination in anatomy, physiology, physics, and chemistry being made obligatory after the fourth semester. This ensured a theoretical basis for clinical instruction. The subjects of the second examination are: anatomy, pharmacology, general

pathology, medical jurisprudence, and public health administration. The third examination added mental pathology, children's diseases, dermatology, and sexual diseases to the four principal clinical subjects (therapeutics, surgery, ophthalmology, obstetrics, and gynecology).

This system remained in force for twenty years; in 1922 a new system was instituted. According to this the course continued to consist of ten semesters, but the year of internship was merged with the years of study. This aimed to bring about more practical instruction and to make practice in the hospital more effective. An examination in physics, chemistry, anatomy, and physiology before the fifth semester was made an absolute requirement for clinical work. At the end of the course comes the second examination in anatomy, pharmacology, and general pathology. This is followed by an examination in the clinical subjects and by the third examination. The fourth and concluding examination embraces public health administration and medical jurisprudence. This scheme of examinations, while laying more emphasis on practical instruction, not only maintained but actually strengthened the theoretical basis.

The Faculty of Philosophy

The criticisms of the German universities by Kant, advanced in his *Der Streit der Fakultäten*, applied also to the old Hungarian Faculty of Philosophy prior to 1848. This Faculty came under the influence of German idealism and in 1848 instituted the principle of freedom in teaching and learning. The *Entwurf* of 1850, by adding the philosophical course of two years to the six-year course of the Gymnasium, permitted the Faculty to devote itself purely to scholarly tasks. It also was freed from the engineering course, which was added to the Joseph Technical University. In addition, the chairs of botany, zoology, mineralogy, and chemistry were transferred from the Faculty of Medicine to the Faculty of Philosophy and with this transfer the Faculty of Philosophy assumed an equal rank with the other Faculties. The use of compulsory textbooks and semester examinations was done away with and the system of private docents was introduced, thereby increasing the number of elective subjects. The foundation of various scientific institutes and the increase of chairs, keeping pace with the development and

differentiation of the sciences, soon made up for the previous half century, and the Faculties of Philosophy at Budapest and Kolozsvár gradually rose to a European standard.

The great differentiation of sciences and the necessity for taking individual inclination and ability into consideration made it imperative to reform the already anachronistic examination for the doctorate now in existence. The Regulation of 1873 requires a printed dissertation from the candidate and a two-hour oral examination in three related subjects, one as a major subject and two as minor subjects.

All the regulations with reference to organization, curriculum, and plan of examinations which governed the Faculty of Philosophy at Budapest were made to apply in the Faculties of Philosophy at Kolozsvár (1872), Debrecen (1914), and Pozsony (1918), with the exception that, on the style of the French *faculté des lettres* and *faculté des sciences*, the mental sciences (philosophy, philology, and history) and the natural sciences (mathematics also) have become separate, independent faculties in these universities.

Promotio sub Auspiciis Regis (Gubernatoris)

A more solemn form of conferring the doctorate is what is called the *promotio sub auspiciis regis*, revived in 1893 and designed to recognize special merits and to serve as an encouragement to the younger generation. Accordingly, two students who have completed their secondary school and university studies with a record of "excellent" all through are chosen annually from alternate Faculties and, by the permission and under the patronage of the king (Regent), are granted the doctorate in the presence of a representative of Government, who presents a valuable ring to the candidate as the gift of the king (Regent).

Another form of the doctorate is the honorary degree (*doctor honoris causa*). This degree may be granted to eminent persons in the field of scholarship by permission of the king (Regent) through the medium of the Minister.

UNIVERSITY INSTITUTES AND SEMINARS

During recent decades Hungarian Universities and higher institutions of learning have been more and more enriched by the instruments of modern university life and scientific research, by

various scientific institutes and seminars. The universities at Budapest, Debrecen, and Pécs have four, eight, and six seminars, respectively, in the Faculties of Theology. The Faculties of Law and Political Science at Budapest, Szeged, Debrecen, and Pécs have twelve, nine, six, and five seminars, respectively.

The Faculties of Medicine have the following institutions: *At Budapest*—two Institutes of Anatomy, two Institutes of Pathological Anatomy, an Institute of Physiology, Institute of General Anatomy and Therapeutics, Institute of Bacteriology, Institute of Pharmacology, Institute of Public Health Administration, Institute of Medical Jurisprudence, Institute of Brain Tissues, Institute of Pharmacognosy, Institute of Physiological and Pathological Chemistry, University Pharmacy, Central Röntgen Institute, four therapeutic clinics with 470 beds, three surgical clinics with 468 beds, two eye clinics with 211 beds, two obstetrical and gynecological clinics with 397 beds, a Psychiatric and Neurological Clinic with 150 beds, a Children's Diseases Clinic with 184 beds, a Clinic of Dermatology and Sexual Diseases with 88 beds, a Clinic of Urology with 97 beds, an Ear Clinic with 25 beds, a Clinic of Stomatology with 8 beds, and a Nose and Throat Clinic with 24 beds—a total of 2,122 beds. *At Szeged*—an Institute of Descriptive Anatomy, Institute of Evolution and Tissues, Institute of Physiology, Institute of Pathological Anatomy and Diseased Tissues, Institute of General Pathology and Therapeutics, Institute of Pharmacology, Institute of Public Health Administration, Institute of Medical Jurisprudence, Institute of Pharmacognosy, Institute of Medical Chemistry, University Pharmacy, Therapeutic Clinic with 94 beds, Surgical Clinic with 44 beds, Eye Clinic with 96 beds, Clinic for Women with 76 beds, Clinic of Psychiatry and Neurology with 105 beds, Clinic of Children's Diseases with 38 beds, and Clinic of Dermatology and Sexual Diseases with 102 beds—a total of 555 beds. *At Debrecen*—Institute of Anatomy, Institute of Pathological Anatomy, Institute of General Pathology and Physiology, Institute of Pharmacology, Institute of Public Health Administration, Institute of Medical Jurisprudence, Institute of Physics, Institute of Chemistry, Central Röntgen Institute, Therapeutic Clinic with 153 beds, Surgical Clinic with 142 beds, Eye Clinic with 72 beds, Clinic of Obstetrics and Gynecology with 153 beds, Clinic of

Psychiatry and Neurology with 120 beds, Clinic of Children's Diseases with 132 beds, Clinic of Dermatology and Sexual Diseases with 104 beds, and Nose and Throat Clinic with 14 beds—a total of 890 beds. *At Pécs*—Institute of Anatomy, Institute of Biology, Institute of Physiology, Institute of Pathological Anatomy, Institute of Pathology, Institute of Pharmacology, Institute of Public Health Administration, Institute of Medical Jurisprudence, Institute of Physics, Institute of Chemistry, Central Röntgen Institute, Therapeutic Clinic with 150 beds, Surgical Clinic with 120 beds, Eye Clinic with 80 beds, Clinic of Obstetrics with 120 beds, Clinic of Neurology and Psychiatry with 120 beds, and Clinic of Dermatology and Sexual Diseases with 110 beds—a total of 850 beds.

The Faculties of Philosophy have the following institutions: *At Budapest*—Eleven seminars, Museum of Greek Philology, Museum of Coins and Antiques, Collection in Aesthetics, Collection in History of Art, Collection of Christian Archaeology, Library of Philosophy, Library of Pedagogy, Library of History, Collection in History of Hungarian Culture, Egyptian Collection, Geographical Institute, Cosmographical Institute, Collection of Mathematical Instruments, Collection of Physics Instruments, Institute of Experimental Physics, Institute of Practical Physics, three Institutes of Chemistry, two Botanical Institutes, Institute of Botanical Geography, Institute and Museum of Zoology and Comparative Anatomy, Institute and Museum of Mineralogy and Petrography, Institute and Museum of Anthropology, Geological Institute, Institute and Museum of Palaeontology, Institute of Radiology. *At Szeged*—Philosophical Institute, Institute of Pedagogy, Institute of Hungarian History, Institute of the History of the Middle Ages and Modern Times, Institute of Ancient History, Archaeological Institute, Institute of Hungarian Philology, Institute of History of Hungarian Literature, Institute of German Philology and Literature, Institute of French Philology and Literature, Institute of Classical Philology, Institute of Ural-Altaic Philology, Geographical Institute, Seminar in Mathematics and Descriptive Geometry, Institute of Experimental Physics, Institute of Practical Physics, two Institutes of Chemistry, Institute of Mineralogy and Geology, Institute of Zoology, Institute of Botany and Specimen Gardening. *At Debrecen*—Institute of Philosophy, Institute of Pedagogy, In-

stitute of Educational Psychology, Institute of Phonetics and German, Seminar in Classical Philology, Museum in Classical Philology, Seminar in Modern Philology, Seminar in History, Geographical Institute. *At Pécs*—Library and Laboratory in Pedagogy, Library of Philosophy, Institute of Classical Philology, Institute of Hungarian Philology, Institute of German Philology, Institute of French Philology, Institute of World History, Institute of Hungarian History, Geographical Institute.

UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

University students are either ordinary, that is, those who have been fully admitted on the basis of a certificate of maturity from a secondary school, and extraordinary, that is, those not fully admitted from whom no definite previous training is required, the only condition being that they shall have completed their sixteenth birthday. Foreign students may be admitted as ordinary students, provided they have the proper preliminary qualification. In this case jurisdiction lies with the respective faculties.

In 1895 the king granted permission to women to study, with certain limitations, in the Faculties of Philosophy and Medicine and the School of Pharmacy. Since 1926 the following rule is in force with reference to the admission of women to a university. Women are not permitted to be enrolled in the Faculties of Roman Catholic Theology and Law and Political Science. However, in a limited number they may be enrolled in the Faculties of Reformed and Lutheran Theologies, Medicine, Philosophy, Philology and History, and Mathematics and Natural Sciences.

Regulations regarding the admission of women to other colleges of university rank may here be mentioned. They may not be admitted to the engineering, mechanical engineering, or chemical engineering departments of the Royal Joseph Technical University, but they may obtain permission from individual professors to attend lectures as guests. In the department of architecture, inasmuch as the quota is not always filled by men, five per cent of the students allowed may be women. In the Faculty of Economic Sciences women may be admitted to the departments of agriculture and commerce without any limitation; they are excluded from the departments of economics, administration,

and foreign affairs; and within certain limits they may be enrolled in the training department for teachers of commercial subjects. Women may be enrolled in the School of Pharmacy without any reservations.

Following the World War, students flocked to the universities in such numbers that lecture rooms proved inadequate and sound training was impaired. The anxiety also manifested itself that, if the increased number of professionally trained men could not be given jobs in the country, reduced as it was to one-third its former size, a dangerous intellectual proletariat would be created, which would possibly give rise to another revolution. Parliament therefore passed a special law regulating admission to the universities. This law stipulated that the number of students to be enrolled in the various faculties should be fixed by the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction on the basis of the suggestions of the individual faculties (*numerus clausus*). As from the school year 1920-1921, only those students were to be admitted to the universities who could be absolutely trusted in respect of morality and national loyalty, and in only such numbers as would not be detrimental to sound training. Students must apply for admission. The granting or refusal of admission was in the hands of the respective faculties. Besides the postulate of moral rectitude and national loyalty, the intellectual ability of applicants must be taken into consideration, while at the same time care must be exercised that the *ratio* of students from the minority races living in Hungary should be on a par with their average number of people or at least constitute nine-tenths of it. A recent decree (1928) has greatly facilitated the admission of students.

UNIVERSITY STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS (UNIVERSITY OF BUDAPEST)

Following is a list of the student organizations in the University of Budapest:

1. The *Theological Students' School of Hungarian Church Literature*. Founded 1831. Object: The training of members in scholarship and literature and publication of Catholic literature.
2. *R       Society of Law Students*. Founded 1861. Object: Assistance of law students.
3. *Relief and Self-Improvement Society of Medical Students*. Object: Assistance of members.

4. *Relief and Self-Improvement Society of Pharmacy Students*. Founded 1863. Object: Assistance of needy members and developing of scholarship among members.

5. *The University Club*. Founded 1872. Object: The advancement of scholarly, literary, and artistic endeavours among its members.

6. *Relief Society of Philosophy Students*. Founded 1873. Object: Assistance of needy philosophy students.

7. *The University Hospital Society*. Founded 1891. Object: Assistance of students and graduates of Peter Pázmány and Joseph Technical Universities by grant of medical and hospital attention, in the case of graduates even three years after graduation.

8. *Mensa Academica Society*. Founded 1894. Object: Assistance of students of Peter Pázmány and Joseph Technical Universities by grant of free board.

9. *General University Relief Society*. Founded 1898. Object: To give financial aid to poor students.

10. *University Athletic Club of Budapest*. Object: To develop athletic sports among its members.

11. *Society of Law Students*. Object: To deepen interest in law and political science among students.

12. *University Society of Natural Sciences*. Object: To develop interest in natural sciences.

13. *University Shorthand Society*. Founded 1903. Object: To train members in shorthand.

14. *University Glee Club*. Founded 1906. Object: To develop members in music and singing.

15. *University Touring Society*. Founded 1909. Object: To stimulate interest in tours and in the beauties of nature.

There are similar organizations in the other universities also.

III. THE ROYAL JOSEPH TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

HISTORY

The Royal Joseph Technical University, the only technical school of university rank in Hungary, has a history of one hundred and forty-four years.

The university in Buda first proposed the foundation of an engineering school in the year 1780. Joseph II in 1782 then

established the *Institutum Geometricum* in connection with the Faculty of Philosophy of the university. Thus training of engineers in Hungary has been carried on in the university since 1782, Hungary having in this respect anticipated all other nations.

The *Institutum Geometricum* functioned within the university until 1850, when it was amalgamated with the Joseph Industrial School, opened in 1845. The united schools in 1856 assumed the rank of a polytechnical school. This school was then reorganized (in 1871) and raised to the rank of a university under its present title. Thus this school has for more than half a century functioned as a university.

In 1901 the university received the right to confer Doctor's degrees (*doctor rerum technicarum*), and in 1910 it also obtained the privilege of the *promotio sub auspiciis regis* already described.

ORGANIZATION

The Royal Joseph Technical University is a complete technical school. It is divided into six faculties; architecture, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, chemical engineering, economics, and general. The last faculty trains technical professors and takes care of special students.

The youngest of the faculties is that of economics, established in 1914. In establishing a Faculty of Economics and in the training of economic engineers the Joseph Technical University anticipated all other higher technical schools. In German technical schools the transformation is only now in process.

The aim of the Technical University is to train professional men in the field of technical and economic sciences. Only students with certificates of maturity from a secondary school may be admitted as regular students to the technical faculties. The courses in these faculties last eight semesters; in the Faculty of Economics, two semesters; but here the entrance requirement is completion of a university course. Upon completion of the courses in the various technical faculties—architecture, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, and chemical engineering—students receive diplomas in their respective subjects. Graduates of the Faculty of Economics also receive a diploma. Engineers in any field who successfully pass the examination in economics receive a diploma of economic engineers.

The university has the right to grant Doctor's degrees both in the technical and in the economic faculties. Candidates must first have a diploma. In the Faculty of Economics it is also necessary to produce some sort of original published work or to carry on research work for at least two semesters in some seminar of the Faculty of Economics. The basis of the examination for the doctorate is a dissertation.

Students or graduates from technical schools abroad are admitted on the basis of their previous studies, in so far as these come up to the standard of the university. Differences must be made up either by examination or by class work.

At the head of the Technical University is the Rector.

CURRICULUM

At the Technical University there is not the wide freedom of choice found in other universities. Yet here, too, the professors have perfect freedom in what they teach. The professor is one who *suam sententiam profitetur*, that is, he has the right to discuss his own personal ideas and researches free and unhindered. In this respect freedom has always existed and still exists in the Technical University. But the freedom of students in the choice of subjects meets with serious obstacles. While in other universities subjects may be freely chosen, in the Technical University one subject grows out of another and it is impossible to master one without the other as a basis. Hence it is necessary to follow a fixed, prescribed course of study arranged progressively. This arrangement has so far met with general satisfaction among both students and professors.

The obligatory subjects in the various faculties are as follows:

Architecture

First year—mathematics, descriptive geometry, mechanics, ancient architecture, chemistry, geology, drafting, building construction, applied study of solids.

Second year—applied study of solids, technical physics, building construction, ancient architecture, architecture of the Middle Ages, principles of planning, general mechanics, water colors, drafting, practical perspective, chemical technology.

Third year—building construction, medieval architecture, modern architecture, principles of planning, history of art, iron and

reinforced cement construction, elements of geodesy, ornamentation, planning, water colors, design, modelling.

Fourth year—iron and reinforced cement construction, electro-technics, planning, industrial and business buildings, modern architecture, history of art, ornamentation, design, modelling, economics, architectural hygiene.

Civil Engineering

First year—analysis and geometry, descriptive geometry, mechanics, chemistry, experimental physics, geology, drawing, building construction.

Second year—analysis and geometry, mechanics, geodesy, building construction, chemical technology, hydraulic construction, construction of roads and railroads, materials.

Third year—geodesy, building construction, statics of joints, bridge construction, construction of roads and railroads, hydraulic construction, general mechanics, encyclopedia of architectural art.

Fourth year—electrotechnics, bridge construction, railroad construction, hydraulic construction, economics, administrative law.

Mechanical Engineering

First year—analysis and geometry, descriptive geometry, mechanics, experiments in solidity, drawing, general mechanics, mechanical drawing, mechanical shop work, chemistry.

Second year—analysis and geometry, mechanics, experiments in solidity, physics, electrotechnics, chemical technology, mechanical drawing, elements of machines, mechanical shop work, metallurgy.

Third year—iron construction, elements of machines, hydraulic machines, compressors and steam turbines, cutting of metals and wood, weaving of fibrous material, administrative law, elements of geodesy, cranes, architectural encyclopedics, mechanical shop work.

Fourth year—calorimeters, electric machines, electromotors, encyclopedics in railroad construction, economics, industrial accounting, electrotechnics, hydraulic machines, compressors and steam turbines, materials and paper-making, cranes, mechanical shop work, locomotives, electric railways.

Chemical Engineering

First year—experimental physics, mathematics, chemistry, chemical analysis, mineralogy, general mechanics, mechanical drawing, analytical practice, electrotechnics, glass work, production of organic materials.

Second year—physical chemistry, chemical technology, organic chemistry, technical microscopy, technical mikology, electrotechnics, laboratory work in analytical chemistry, glass blowing, laboratory work in organic chemistry.

Third year—electrochemistry, laboratory work in organic chemistry, agricultural chemistry, machines of chemical industries, batteries, economics, gasometric methods, recent chemical theories, chemistry of foods, laboratory work in chemical technology, architectural encyclopedies.

Fourth year—laboratory work in agricultural chemistry, chemistry of foods, micrological studies in fermentation industries, industrial accounting, laboratory work in electrochemistry.

Economics

Economics, administrative law, civil law, finance, criminal law, statistics, transportation, commerce and banking, tariff systems, social politics, state accounting, mining and industries, agriculture, and theoretical economics.

Besides the prescribed courses students of economics are required to take six semester hours of special subjects and a seminar. There are three groups of seminars: (a) economics and finance, (b) statistics and economic politics, and (c) transportation. It is left to the student to choose his seminar. His special subjects, however, must be chosen in fields related to the seminar. The groups of special courses offered are mathematics, natural sciences, technical sciences, economics and law, languages, and practical work in mechanics.

EXAMINATIONS

Examinations in the obligatory courses are compulsory. No fee is charged unless the examination is taken after the prescribed time. Examinations in subjects requiring laboratory work can be taken only on completion of the courses and passing of the final examinations. The qualifying examination is

written and oral. In the technical faculties there are three groups of qualifying examinations. The time of the first is the last two weeks of the second year when the lectures are finished or the first three weeks of the following year before the lectures begin. The second qualifying examination may be taken as soon as the student has completed the study of the subjects required for examination. The third examination is taken upon completion of the courses in the university.

SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

1. The *Mensa Technica*, started in 1899 by the wives of professors and now maintained by the government and the technical professions, provides board for technical students.

2. The *Students' Relief Society*, founded in 1862, functions as an agency for assisting poor students. Since the World War it has concentrated its attention in the main upon technical students exiled from the territories separated from Hungary. It maintains a home with accommodation for 204 students.

3. The *Centrum Co-operative Association* was founded in 1919 to lend material support to students and now maintains a clothing store, barber's shop, and dairy.

4. Athletic associations such as the *Athletic and Football Club*, the *Rowing Club*, *Rifle Society*, and *Aviation Society*.

5. The *Technical University Glee Club*, founded in 1896, gives annual recital and from time to time joins the *University Glee Club* in making extended tours of Europe.

6. The *Hungaria Fraternity of Technicians*, founded in 1919, aims to help technical students meet the requirements of their studies. It gives popular lectures and courses and publishes the *Technica*, a monthly magazine devoted to technical subjects.

7. The *Radio Club*, founded in 1924, designs to increase the knowledge of its members in the theoretical and practical science of the radio.

IV. ROYAL UNIVERSITY FACULTY OF ECONOMIC SCIENCES OF BUDAPEST

HISTORY

Hungarian higher institutions of learning were enriched in 1920 by a new institution called the University Faculty of

Economic Sciences. This faculty was started to provide the highest possible training in agriculture, commerce, administration, and foreign representation. With it an old desire of Hungarian economic life was fulfilled.

Hungarian economists, economic societies, and congresses since 1872 had been continuously pressing for the establishment of an agricultural school of university rank. And since the nineties of the last century the question of a commercial school of university rank had also been constantly discussed. At the Congress of the Association of Hungarian Economists in 1900 the movement to establish a school was definitely started, and it was aimed to have separate departments for agriculture, commerce, industry, and finance.

This movement was substantially aided by the growing desire to have administrative officers of the State trained in dealing with economic questions in order that they might the better fulfil their task.

After these preliminaries a group of eminent economists sent a memorandum to both houses of Parliament and to the Ministry in 1912. Parliament accepted the idea and instructed the government to take steps to effect the foundation of a university. Organization work at the time was checked by the critical situation of Parliament. It was only after the revolution that something definite could be done and the government in 1920 forthwith established the University Faculty of Economic Sciences. At the same time it was arranged to have teachers of commercial subjects receive their special training in this new school. Work was begun in the school year of 1920-1921.

ORGANIZATION AND AIM

The University Faculty of Economic Sciences is entirely independent of the faculties of the university and enjoys the same rank and rights as those faculties. Its aim is to prepare professional men in economics, agriculture, administration, international commerce, and representation, to train teachers for schools of economics, and to cultivate the sciences within its scope.

Accordingly four departments are included: agriculture, commerce and training of commercial teachers, administration, and foreign representation and consular service.

The agricultural department prepares for positions in big agri-

cultural enterprises, the commercial department for industrial, commercial, and transportation concerns, and the teachers' training department for positions as teachers in higher commercial schools. The administration department trains for positions in the civil service of the government, and the foreign representation department, for foreign service.

At present the faculty has 18 chairs and the following institutes to supplement the work of the lecture room: (1) Institute of Agrochemistry, (2) Institute of Plant Growing, (3) Institute of Agrobotany, (4) Institute of Animal Husbandry, (5) Institute of Farming, (6) Institute of Economic Geography, (7) Institute and Experimental Station in Social Politics, (8) Institute of Agricultural Politics, with special seminars, (9) Oriental Institute, with a museum. The Oriental Institute is undergoing reorganization.

The following seminars are offered: (1) Economics and Social Politics, (2) Economic Politics, (3) Agricultural Enterprises, (4) Agricultural Industry, (5) Agrogeology, (6) Commercial Law, (7) Commercial and Political Arithmetic, (8) Languages.

The department of agriculture possesses an experimental field of over 200 acres of land, fully equipped. The faculty has a library of over 37,700 volumes and 603 maps. Of this number 9,314 books have been placed in the central library, while the remainder are distributed among individual chairs, institutes, and seminars.

To the teaching staff belong those ordinary and extraordinary professors, private docents, lecturers, and instructors whose appointments have previously been approved and confirmed by the Ministry. They are assisted by adjuncts and assistants. At the head of the faculty is the Dean, who is elected from year to year from the members of the staff. At present as administrator and supervisor he exercises the powers of a University Rector. His deputy is the ex-Dean, whose office is filled by the retiring Dean. The direct governing body of the faculty is the meeting of ordinary and extraordinary professors and two representatives of the private docents. The Dean presides. Administration is in the hands of the Dean, Quaestor, and Business Office.

Students may be ordinary or extraordinary. Ordinary students in the administration and foreign representation departments are those who possess a certificate of maturity from some

secondary school, and in the agricultural and commercial departments, those who have a certificate of maturity from a secondary school or some commercial or agricultural school of secondary rank. Anyone sixteen years of age with proper educational background may enrol as a special student.

Women may enrol as ordinary students in the departments of agriculture and commerce. Foreign students can become regular students by meeting special requirements. The faculty will accept credits of foreign students provided they are equivalents of the work covered by the courses of the faculty.

In the matter of tuition fees and discipline of students, the same rules prevail as at the Peter Pázmány University.

CURRICULUM

The diploma of the faculty can be obtained only upon completion of eight semesters of studies and on passing the stipulated examinations. The following subjects are offered:

Agriculture

Agricultural Subjects—(a) agrochemistry, physics, economic botany, bacteriology, economic geology, study of environment, economic zoology, anatomy and physiology of domestic animals, special and general study of plant growing, plant pathology, economic machinery, economic electrotechnics, economic architecture, biology of animal husbandry, animal husbandry, milk production, grape growing and wine producing, measurement and cultivation of soil, agricultural industries, fermentation industries, grafting, pasture lands, forestry, gardening, animal pathology, agricultural enterprising, agricultural finances and accounting; (b) exercises in agrochemistry, agricultural botany, anatomy and physiology of domestic animals, plant growing, animal raising, plant pathology, and agricultural enterprising.

Economics—history of economics, economics, economic politics, land politics, associations and business, statistics, finances, community politics, animal raising.

Legal Subjects—legal encyclopedics, recording deeds, laws, and mortgages, agricultural administration, economic law, political science.

Commerce and Geography—economic geography, commerce and accounting, agricultural commerce.

Commerce

Commercial Subjects—general commerce, commercial bookkeeping, banking and bank bookkeeping, balances, insurance and bookkeeping, public enterprises, international commerce, mathematics, commercial and political arithmetic, prices and values, computations of possibilities, mathematical statistics, differentiation, insurance arithmetic, German, French, or English commercial encyclopedies, commercial exercises in letter writing, bookkeeping, bills, arithmetic, economics, and insurance.

Geography and Merchandise—economic and transportation geography, chemistry of merchandise, commercial geology, mechanics of merchandise, agricultural industries, fermentation industries, iron and metal industry, industry of foodstuffs and articles of luxury, textile industry.

Economics—history of economics, philosophy, economics, economic politics, statistics, finances, transportation, association politics and bookkeeping, commerce and credit, tariff and transportation, insurance, social insurance, social politics.

Legal Subjects—legal encyclopedies, administration encyclopedies, private law, commercial law, law of industrial administration, notes and checks, legal aspects of corporations and associations, financial law, civil law, transportation and naval law, insurance laws, political science.

Languages—German, French, or English language, German, French, or English commercial encyclopedies.

Administration and Foreign Relations

Legal Subjects—legal encyclopedies, common law, administration law, private law, criminal law and procedure, police law and procedure, commercial law, agricultural administration, administration of public health, civil law and procedure, financial law, educational law and politics, industrial administration law, political science, international law, Church law, and politics.

Economics—elements of philosophy, history of economics, economics, economic politics, statistics, finances, land politics, tariff and transportation, consumers' league and business, foreign politics, community, city, and social politics as separate courses.

Agricultural Subjects—encyclopedies of plant growing, encyclopedies of animal raising, agricultural enterprises.

Commercial Subjects—state budgets, commerce, commercial bookkeeping, exercises in bookkeeping, balances, banking and bank bookkeeping.

Geographical and Mercantile Subjects—introduction to economic geography, economic and commercial geography, political geography, mechanics of merchandise, economic geology, agricultural industry, foodstuff industry.

Languages—one nationality language.

Foreign Representation—modern history, diplomatic history, recent peace treaties, foreign politics, international law, French, and another language.

Besides these courses students may take special subjects, lectures, and language courses.

V. LAW SCHOOLS

Prior to the increase of the number of universities law schools played a more important part in higher education. Their number, which once exceeded ten, has now decreased considerably. This was due partly to the fact that the new universities each included a law school in its scheme and partly to the loss of two schools as a result of the Treaty of Trianon and the closing of others because of the necessary decrease of State aid. At present only three law schools are in existence—at Eger, Kecskemét, and Miskolc.

The school at Eger came into being in 1740 as a result of the foundation by Archbishop George Foglár. Today it is maintained by the Archbishop of Eger and is the only Catholic law school in the country.

In the Reformed law school at Kecskemét instruction has been carried on since 1831. It is the only Reformed law school in the country.

The Lutheran law school at Eperjes was started in 1815 and upon the dismemberment of Hungary by the Treaty of Trianon, it was moved to Miskolc, where it functions today as the only Lutheran law school in the country.

These three schools have the following chairs of instruction:

Roman Catholic Law School at Eger. (1) Roman Law; (2) Canon Law, Hungarian Constitution, and History of Law; (3) Politics, Common and International Law; (4) Economics, Statistics, and State Budgets; (5) Hungarian and Austrian Civil

Law; (6) Criminal Law and Legal Philosophy; (7) Commercial and Civil Law; (8) Administration and Financial Law.

Reformed Law School at Kecskemét. (1) Canon Law, Hungarian Constitution, History of Law, and Modern History; (2) Administration and Financial Law and State Budgets; (3) Introduction to Legal and Political Sciences, Hungarian Common Law, International Law, and Politics; (4) Roman Law, and History of Culture; (5) Legal Philosophy, Punishment, and Ethics; (6) Economics, Finances, and Statistics; (7) Hungarian and Austrian Civil Law; (8) Commercial Law, and Settlements.

Lutheran Law School at Miskolc. (1) Roman Law; (2) Hungarian Constitution and Legal History, Canon Law, History, and Philosophy; (3) Economics, Finances, and Statistics; (4) Legal Philosophy and Punishment; (5) Administration and Financial Law; (6) Austrian and Hungarian Civil Law, and Mining Laws; (7) Common Law, Politics, and Introduction to Legal and Political Sciences; (8) Commercial Law and Legal Suits.

During the year 1925-1926 the following numbers of students were in attendance: Eger 180, Kecskemét 534, and Miskolc 369. The situation of these schools since the increase of the number of universities has become very precarious. They are maintained mainly from a denominational point of view and do not receive State aid. They follow the program of studies offered by the universities, and, although they may give preliminary examinations, final qualifying examinations are given only by the universities.

VI. THEOLOGICAL SEMINARIES

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH

Prior to the Synod of Trent the training of priests was carried on in the cloistral and monastic schools and after the foundation of universities wealthy students attended foreign universities (Bologna, Padua, Paris, Cracow, and Vienna). The Synod of Trent in 1563 ordered that a seminary be founded in each diocese for the purpose of training priests. The Archbishop of Esztergom, Michael Oláh, founded a seminary in his diocese as early as 1567. He was followed by Peter Pázmány, who established the University of Nagyszombat with the Faculties of Philosophy and Theology and gave it over to the Jesuits. Subsequently, other seminaries were founded by the various dioceses,

which in 1784 were merged into two seminaries at Pozsony and Pest. These two schools soon ceased and the old schools were revived; the training of priests continues to this day in separate diocesan seminaries. Higher training for priests is offered at the University of Budapest in connection with the central seminary.

The courses are four years in length and the number of the professors varies between seven and five. Courses in Christian philosophy, Old and New Testament sciences, apologetics, dogmatics, ethics, Church history, Church law, and pastoral theology are offered in all seminaries. Some seminaries offer courses in religious education, catechetics, homiletics, liturgics, sociology, asceticism, hygiene, and common law.

The language of instruction in strictly theological subjects is Latin and in others, Hungarian. In most of the seminaries the courses are given in alternate years so that the students of two grades listen to common lectures; at Esztergom and Eger the four grades are separated. Every seminary has required semester examinations.

The seminaries are maintained either by themselves by means of funds or by the aid of bishops, archbishops, and endowments. Students are taken care of gratis. The various orders maintain their own separate theological schools, in which courses extend over three to seven years.

The Greek Catholic Church, as a result of the Treaty of Trianon, has no seminary, but trains her priests at Budapest or Esztergom.

Hungarian priests and students also may study abroad at the *Collegium Germanico-Hungaricum* at Rome, the *Anselmianum* and Papal School of Rome, the Pázmány Institute of Vienna, and the Universities of Innsbruck, Freiburg, and Louvain.

REFORMED CHURCH

Dismembered Hungary has three Reformed Theological Seminaries—at Budapest, Pépa, and Sárospatak. The fourth, at Debrecen, has been merged in the University as a Faculty of Theology. A fifth, at Kolozsvár, was lost as a result of the dismemberment of Hungary.

The curriculum, courses, and examinations of these Seminaries are determined and controlled by the General Conventus, the supreme administrative organ of the Reformed Church. The

present curriculum, courses, and order of examinations were fixed by the meeting of 1924.

Only candidates with a maturity certificate from a secondary school are admitted to the Reformed Seminaries, and these are admitted only if they have credits in Latin and Greek. Candidates must be recommended by their teachers of religion in the secondary school. Upon the successful completion of the Seminary and the two qualifying examinations graduates may apply for positions in any congregation of the Reformed Church. Pastors may apply for positions of teachers of religion in secondary schools only if they have also obtained a special certificate qualifying them to serve in such capacity.

The Seminary course consists of eight semesters, and students attend for an average of thirty semester hours. There are six groups of subjects taught—Old Testament sciences, New Testament sciences, Christian theology and ethics, history of general and Hungarian Protestantism, practical theology and Church law, and philosophy and education. Students are required to pass examinations in all required subjects. Four semesters of the eight may be spent in Seminaries abroad, but even in this case students are required to take examinations at home in those subjects that were not studied abroad.

Upon the completion of the first four semesters the first examination is taken in New Testament and Old Testament science and literatures, history of Christianity, history of religion and philosophy, and education. After the eighth semester students take their first qualifying examination before a committee of a Synod of the church. The written examination consists of a thesis written upon one of three designated subjects, and a written composition. The subjects of the oral examination are Old and New Testament exegesis, Old and New Testament biblical theology, Christian theology, Christian ethics, and homiletics. After two years the second qualifying examination may be taken. The intervening two years may be spent as assistant pastor at home, or one of these may be spent abroad in some Theological Seminary. The second qualifying examination is written and oral. The first includes a longer thesis, a biblical and catechetical exposition, a sermon, and written questions, while the subjects of the oral examination are homiletics, liturgics, catechetics, pastoral theology, home missions, Church law, history of Hun-

garian Protestantism, and practical exegesis. Candidates completing these examinations, successfully receive diplomas entitling them to the full privileges of the church.

These Theological Seminaries are maintained by the respective Synods of the church, which also elect the professors for life. The affairs of each Seminary are administered by special committees and at times by the bishop himself. Students do not pay tuition fees. These institutions provide for students either a refectory or a dormitory or both.

At Budapest and Sárospatak there are seven chairs of instruction and at Pápa, six.

LUTHERAN AND UNITARIAN CHURCHES

Prior to the dismemberment of the country Hungarian Lutherans maintained seminaries at three places—Pozsony, Sopron, and Eperjes, each with a four-year course. They were of equal rank, although the first was maintained by the entire Church and the last two were maintained by individual Synods.

Of these the school at Eperjes ceased to function in 1919 and the one at Pozsony was forced to seek refuge in Budapest, where it continued its courses. The faculty was composed of two professors from Pozsony and three from Eperjes and their assistants. The school at Sopron continued its activities after the dismemberment of the country. The Lutheran Church, however, having lost more than half of her members, was unable to maintain two schools and thus, after extended discussions, a Faculty of Lutheran Theology was started as an organic part of Elizabeth University of Pécs with six chairs of instruction. The church, however, reserved the right to establish a theological seminary at any convenient time. Thus at present the training of Lutheran ministers is carried on only in this Theological Faculty.

As from 1847 Unitarians trained their ministers at Kolozsvár. This school, as a result of the dismemberment of Hungary, at present functions in Roumanian territory. Unitarian students from Hungary also study there or at least take the prescribed and qualifying examinations there.

NATIONAL RABBINICAL SEMINARY

As in other countries, so in Hungary there was no training school for rabbis until the latter part of the nineteenth century.

For centuries it was the custom for an outstanding rabbi to open a school (*yeshivah*), in which anyone desiring to study the Talmud was permitted to enrol. This custom prevails in many countries to this day and even in Hungary to some extent. In Hungary, however, the keeping of state records made it necessary to demand a minimum of formal education from rabbis. Accordingly, the position of a rabbi is restricted only to such as have a certificate of at least four years' work done in a middle school and, in the event that State aid is asked, the rabbi must have a certificate of maturity from some secondary school.

The modernization of the training of rabbis was first advanced during the rule of Joseph II. The feeling was current that it was only thus that Jews could be won over to the contemplated program of national culture. Subsequently, the idea was kept alive by Joseph Peter v. Rieger and Friesenhausen David Mayer. In 1844 an actual bill came before Parliament in this matter, which, however, was defeated in the Upper House because of objectionable details in the law. In 1849 Haynau gave the Jews of the country the option of paying 2,300,000 florins as a war debt for their participation in the war of independence or initiating a school fund of 1,000,000 florins. The latter plan was selected and this fund became the basis of the rabbinical seminary, which was decided upon in 1868 and formally opened for instruction in 1877.

The National Rabbinical Seminary is under the supervision of the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, who exercises his supervision through a committee. This committee consists of twelve members from Budapest and twelve from the country at large, functioning in the capacity of a regular organization with officers and committees chosen from among themselves.

The Seminary consists of two courses—the upper and lower, each five years in length. In the lower school (Gymnasium) are enrolled only students who have completed four years of the Gymnasium or who successfully pass a prescribed entrance examination. There are no enrolment, examination, or tuition fees. Enrolment in the upper course occurs on the basis of a certificate of maturity from the lower institution or from any accredited school of equal rank, together with a prescribed entrance examination in certain theological studies. Students in the upper course must at the same time attend the classes in

philosophy at the University. The curriculum of the lower course is exactly like that of the humanist Gymnasium, with the exception that the material is extended over five years instead of four, since students are required to take 15 or 16 weekly hours of theological subjects. The certificate of maturity issued by the school is accepted on the par with those issued by other accredited schools.

The theological subjects are taught in two groups:

I. The Hebrew subjects of the lower course: Pentateuch, Hagiographa, Prophets, Hebrew grammar, Aramaic grammar, Talmud *Statarie*, Talmud *Cursorie*, Hebrew history, and systematic religion.

II. The Hebrew subjects of the upper course: scriptural exegesis, introduction to scriptures, introduction to Midrash literature, history of scriptural exegesis, exegetical readings, Midrash, Hebrew exercises, Talmud *Statarie*, Talmud *Cursorie*, Palestinian Talmud, introduction to the Talmud, liturgics, introduction to the literature of responses, liturgics, and the Hebrew calendar, Hebrew history, historical sources, legal status of the Hebrew denomination, introduction to religion, history of Hebrew philosophy of religion. Hebrew philosophy of religion, Hebrew ethics, readings from Hebrew philosophy, methods of Hebrew instruction, and homiletics.

Students of the upper course take a qualifying examination at the end of the first year and a preliminary examination at the end of the third. The qualifying examination consists of written and oral work. The subjects of the oral examination are the biblical sciences, Talmudic liturgy, Hebrew history, and Hebrew philosophy of religion and its history.

The Hungarian Rabbinical Seminary is the only institution of its kind to have been founded by the state.

VII. INSTITUTES FOR SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

ORGANIZATION

Scientific research work is carried on at universities in connection with instruction. But by institutes of scientific research in the modern sense we understand only those in which research is entirely separated from instruction. Foundation of universities considerably preceded that of institutions of research. The lat-

ter are the result of the rapid progress of science and of the fact that universities have come to lay the chief stress upon instruction.

Influenced by foreign examples, similar institutions of research gradually grew up in Hungary also. However, no definite policy was pursued and, as a result, no systematic organization could be crystallized in this field. Institutions changed hands from one Ministry to another according to the interest and financial backing they could procure from them. System in the field of scientific research, as in all educational endeavours of the nation, has latterly manifested itself. The Congress of Natural Sciences in January, 1926, also declared itself in favour of research institutions. As a result of this congress, Count Kuno Klebelsberg, Minister of Education, presented a bill in the interest of institutions for scientific research. Among other things he provided for the erection of the Astronomical Observatory on Sváb Hill, near Budapest. In this bill he advanced the following leading principles:

"For financial reasons small nations must be cautious in the organization of institutions. For this reason we Hungarians can think of founding institutions of research only in fields in which, either because of our location or climate or of our peculiar conditions or some other special reason, we have a trust that we must fulfil. In our country the universities and museums must fulfil the task of conducting researches in the general fields parallel with instruction, and for the establishment of a separate institution of research there must really exist a special, one might say, exceptional right. . . . Thus we Hungarians possess a great natural treasure, the Balaton, which is the largest fresh water lake in Europe. The biological exploration of this lake is a special duty of Hungarian science. The animal and plant world of Lake Balaton and the vicinity opens up ample opportunities for research, and for this very reason the idea of a limnological station near Lake Balaton very naturally broadens out into that of a Hungarian Institute of Biological Research. . . . Another great Hungarian specialty is Loránd Eötvös' great invention, the torsion pendulum. The National Congress of Natural Sciences very heartily favoured the idea that an institute of Geophysical Research be founded, the first duty of which should be to conduct experiments with Eötvös' apparatus and to perfect it. . . .

So, we are actually entitled to establish two specifically Hungarian institutions of research—a biological and a geophysical.”

THE ROYAL ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATORY AT SVÁB HILL

In the eighteenth century an observatory functioned in connection with the schools at Nagyszombat and another one at Eger. However, it was the observatory built on Mount Gellért (Budapest) in 1813 that first attracted the attention of Europe, being then used as the model for similar observations in Munich and Naples. Following the war of 1848, the Austrians built a citadel on Mount Gellért, and the observatory was transferred to Ógyalla, being immediately followed by three more at Kalocsa, Heveny, and Kistartal. The last two have since become defunct and the one at Ógyalla has been lost as a result of the dismemberment of the country.

After the Great War, however, the Hungarian government and the city of Budapest set up with great sacrifices an observatory on the Sváb Hill in the neighbourhood of Budapest. It is far more powerful and modern than the old one in both equipment and building, covering 40,000 square meters and situated 487 meters above sea level.

THE ROYAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF METEOROLOGY AND GEOMAGNETISM

By request of the scholars of Mannheim the observatory at Buda conducted meteorological observations as early as 1781, and these observations appeared in a yearbook (*Ephemerides Societatis Meteorologicae Palatinae*). During the period of Austrian absolutism, in 1852, there were fourteen observation stations, and in 1860 as many as thirty-one. In the early sixties the Hungarian Academy of Sciences set up a geomagnetic observation station at the Real school of Buda and, with the addition of a few pieces of apparatus for registration, raised its standard to that of a first class meteorological station. Finally, the Royal Institute of Meteorology and Geomagnetism was founded in 1870 and today serves as the central organ of observation stations. It systematizes the observed facts that are sent in and also conducts atmospheric and geomagnetic researches. In 1886 there were 227 observation stations.

In 1896 the Institute was divided into five departments: (1)

presidency; (2) observatory; (3) climatology; (4) prognosis; (5) ombrology. Later the Institute for a time made macroseismic and microseismic observations.

After the War the progress of the Institute was decidedly checked. This was due in part to the cruel peace decree, which deprived the Institute of the most valuable and greater part of the network of observation stations (three-fourths of the stations were lost) and which caused the Meteorological and Geomagnetic Observatories of Ógyalla to fall into foreign hands. It may also be attributed to the existing financial burdens, which resulted from the devaluation of currency, and to the decrease in personnel, which was both voluntary and forced by the circumstances.

THE ROYAL SEISMOLOGICAL OBSERVATORY

A special committee to devote itself to the observation of earthquakes was formed by the Geological Society of Hungary in 1881, yet a separate observatory was established only in 1905. The institution publishes its microseismic observations weekly and annually and through these publications is in exchange relationship with about three hundred observatories abroad.

THE BARON LORÁND EÖTVÖS GEOPHYSICAL INSTITUTE

The institute owes its existence to the world famed researches conducted by Baron Loránd Eötvös, professor in the University of Budapest, in the field of gravitation. For the determination of changes in gravitation Eötvös designed an exceptionally sensitive instrument, with which fine measurements can be made in the open. Eötvös' instruments make possible the solution of countless theoretical problems in geophysics and serve almost as a magic wand in the practical work of the geologist for exploring the depths of the earth and its useful mineral treasures.

The Baron Loránd Eötvös Geophysical Institute was established in 1919 to further the theoretical researches of Eötvös in the field of gravitation and to conduct practical measurements, the far-reaching significance of which has already manifested itself in the discovery of the nation's natural resources. The Eötvös torsion pendulums, prepared under the supervision of the Geophysical Institute, are being used with great success throughout the world (Japan, Mexico, Texas, England, France, Holland, Italy, Poland, etc.). The result of the measurements taken in

Hungary is that there is no other country with measurements so detailed, exact, and extending over so large a territory. The same may be said of measurements in geomagnetism. The Eötvös Institute aims to hold the leading rôle in this field of research in the future as well.

THE ROYAL GEOLOGICAL INSTITUTE

The chief organ for geological researches in Hungary for a long time was the Geological Society of Hungary, founded in 1850. The Ministry of Agriculture in 1869 established the Royal Geological Institute with a splendid building in order to conduct a systematic geological survey of the country. The aim of the Institute as expressed in its constitution is: (a) detailed geological survey of the country and acquaintance with fields of agriculture, science, and industry according to their special need with the results of researches; (b) preparation of general and detailed geological maps of the country; (c) the collection of formations on Hungarian soil; (d) analysis of the soil, minerals, and stones from the point of view of agriculture, mining, and industry.

The researches of the institute are published in the *Geologica Hungarica* series. The institute also has a well-equipped chemical laboratory and departments of Mining Geology and Agrogeology.

The institute has prepared the detailed geological map of about three-fourths of Greater Hungary. From the point of view of mining geology it has surveyed the significant mineral fields, published monographs of the coal fields, clay pits, and quarries of Hungary, and thoroughly studied the artesian wells of the great Hungarian plain. From year to year it has served with increasing usefulness in all questions of geological importance.

At the end of the last century it set up a separate agrogeological department for the study of Hungarian soils and on the basis of the complete survey of the country prepared an agrogeological map of the entire country. This department at present is engaged in the study of the sterile regions where soil is saturated with sodium carbonate and of methods of improving them.

THE ROYAL BIOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT TIHANY

The idea of a Hungarian biological station had been advanced in 1892 but was not realized until 1926 when Count Kuno Kle-

belsberg laid the cornerstone of one at Tihany on the shore of Lake Balaton. The institute began its work in 1927. Its program includes researches in the field of morphology, devoted primarily to hydrobiological work in the study and description of the fauna and flora of the Balaton and other waters. The program also embraces research experimentation in experimental morphology, heredity, evolutionary morphology, cellular physiology, types, and group morphology. From time to time the staff also conducts courses for secondary school teachers.

THE ROYAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC HEALTH

The Royal Institute of Public Health was made possible during the hard times of the country by the generous aid of the Rockefeller Foundation. The institute was opened in 1927.

The task of the institution is to further the practical application of science of public health, to direct the prevention of contagious diseases, to give support to health authorities, and to co-operate in the training of public health officers. Much of the research and experimental work, which hitherto rested upon the university and the hospitals, has now been assumed by this institution.

The task of training more efficient public health officers has been undertaken by the Institute, and to this end a typical village is selected near Budapest, where the problems of public health are studied directly on the field. This is especially desirable inasmuch as most of these health officers will be located in rural communities.

The second substantial field of work of the institution is its laboratory service. This work goes on in four departments—the pathohistological and parasitological, bacteriological, serological, and chemical. Each department carries on researches in its peculiar field and supplies practical information to the general public. The chemical department also has charge of the supervision of drugs throughout the country, taking care that they are prepared according to specifications and properly dispensed; it also makes chemical analysis of waters and foodstuffs from the point of view of public health.

INSTITUTES FOR AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENTATION

The laboratories of scientific work in agriculture are the institutes of experimentation. Experimental work in Hungary, as

elsewhere, was connected for a long time with the schools. The first institutional effort of experimentation was the machine experimentation station founded in 1870, which was soon followed by a chemical experimental station and a seed-examining station. These experimental institutions grew rapidly in numbers.

These institutions in the main are located in three places—Budapest with 12 stations, Magyaróvár with 5, and Szeged with 4. All of these are maintained by the state and their work is kept objective and systematized by the Council of Agricultural Experimentation, which also publishes the original scientific results of these institutions. Totalling 33 in number, these experimental stations are divided into five groups: (1) chemical; (2) plant growing; (3) animal breeding; (4) plant protection; (5) technical. To the chemical group belong the National Chemical Institute and Experimental Station in Budapest, twelve experimental stations scattered throughout the country, and the Royal Land Study and Agrochemical Station. In the second group are institutions interested in seeds, plant growing, tobacco, medicinal plants, hemp, flax, grapes, and wines. In the third group are institutions dealing with physiology of animals, wool production, and the milk industry. Among the plant protecting institutions may be found those dealing with the study of insects, birds, plant life, pathology, and plant biochemistry. Among the technical institutions may be counted a machine experimental station, a fermentation station, the experimental station in fish life and water purification, and the National Institute of Agricultural Technic.

THE ROYAL CENTRAL BUREAU OF STATISTICS

The official organ of statistical sciences in Hungary is the Royal Central Bureau of Statistics, which looks back upon a history of fifty years. Its large number of publications embraces all kinds of statistics about Hungary.

The bureau has always been in close touch with scientific institutions abroad and with international statistical organizations. This relationship was facilitated by the fact that the publications of the bureau appear not only in Hungarian but in German and French as well. The bureau has also an exchange relationship with similar bureaus of other countries and has col-

lected about 160,000 volumes on statistics. Members of the statistical bureau of Hungary have always participated actively in international statistical science and have more than once played leading rôles. Statistical congresses have been held in Budapest on three occasions. At the regular meetings of the International Statistical Institute Hungarian statisticians attend in comparatively large numbers, and their scientific work has always been accorded hearty recognition.

THE ROYAL LABORATORY OF MEDICAL PEDAGOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY

The first laboratory in experimental psychology was founded in 1899 by Paul Ranschburg, and it functioned in connection with the Clinic of Mental Pathology and later was taken over by the state.

The principal lines of scientific activity in the laboratory are:

- (1) general psychology, in which the Ranschburg phenomenon is the chief problem under study in its various relationships;
- (2) research in methods, which takes up the study of different mental abilities and takes measurements with the mnemometer;
- (3) study and measurement of the minimum and maximum effect of age and environment on the mental working capacity of a normal man;
- (4) study of mental functions in connection with progress in school;
- (5) examinations in medical pedagogy, especially in mental and moral abnormality from the point of view of education;
- (6) medico-psychological examination of abnormal, dull, and feeble-minded children and adults from the points of view of pathology, therapeutics, and general psychology in order to determine the forms and causes of feeble-mindedness.

VIII. HUNGARIAN SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTES ABROAD— FELLOWSHIPS

INTERNATIONAL CONTACTS

To create closer contacts with the scientific culture of Western nations, to establish Hungarian scientific institutions in centres of learning outside of Hungary, and to organize fellowships to foreign countries, have been some of the cardinal ideas of Hungarian cultural policy prevalent since the Great War. This endeavour is clearly reflected in the law concerning fellowships which Count Klebelsberg presented and supported, urging that it

is the duty of the country to develop eminent ability by every possible encouragement. Fellowships at home and abroad will serve this high purpose. Fellowships abroad are also expected to link Hungary with the learning of the world and to save her from the dangers of intellectual isolation. To encourage students to pursue studies abroad is merely to revive the custom of the Middle Ages and the first centuries of the modern era when Hungarian young men, eager to learn and increase the largess of their experience, streamed in thousands to the universities of Bologna, Padua, Wittenberg, Halle, and Paris.

The importance of foreign study some time ago moved the Minister to establish a so-called *Collegium Hungaricum* in Vienna, Berlin, Munich, and Rome. These institutions, now secured by a law, are devoted purely to learning. Scholars sent to them are selected on the basis of merit by an impartial "Fellowship Council," composed of the representatives of the various societies of learning, together with fifteen members appointed by the Minister.

The fellowships aim to produce scholars, artists, and professional men, who, upon their return, will enhance the cultural standing of the country. Students receiving fellowships or aid for research are required to submit to the Ministry a detailed report on their studies and on their results, to enlist in the service of the Ministry if asked, and to return the amount received as soon as circumstances permit.

HUNGARIAN INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING ABROAD

The Hungarian Historical Institute of Rome

This institution, started by Bishop William Fraknói in 1888 and placed under the care of a special committee of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, is devoted to the study of classic and Roman philology, history, archaeology, art, and literature principally in their Italian and Hungarian connections. It is also called upon, since the introduction of Italian into the Hungarian secondary schools, to provide teachers of Italian. The Italian government has increased the fellowships to four and at its own expense sends lecturers to the three outlying Hungarian universities. In friendly reciprocation the Hungarian government has also established four fellowships for the study of the

Italian language in some university other than that at Rome. The Institute owns a large library and has recently moved into new and larger quarters.

The Hungarian Institute at Constantinople

The Hungarian Institute at Constantinople, founded in 1917 to further research in Turkish and Hungarian relationships, art, language, and archaeology, functioned until 1918 when it was forced by circumstances at home to quit. In that time, however, it had achieved a great deal, as is evidenced by its many publications. Its library at present is under the care of the German Institute of Archaeology at Constantinople.

The Hungarian Scientific Institute at Berlin

The starting point of the Hungarian Scientific Institute at Berlin was the establishment of a chair of Hungarian at the University of Berlin in 1916. The appointed professor, Robert Gragger, also established a seminar, which he equipped with an excellent library and for which he later obtained the libraries of the societies of Hungarian students at Berlin and Halle. To date its library contains more than 26,000 volumes. The seminar soon expanded into an institute of scientific research in the field of Hungarian culture and of related races. In 1917 the Association of the Friends of the Hungarian Institute was formed in Berlin with its membership composed of the representatives of the German and Hungarian governments and of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences and leading German and Hungarian personalities.

Collegium Hungaricum at Berlin

The city of Berlin, with its university, its libraries, and its institutions and the equipment of the Hungarian Scientific Institute, provides scholars with excellent opportunities for research work. Feeling that considerably more could be done if scholars were given a home in which to stay, the Hungarian government in 1923 purchased a three-story building, in which ample opportunity is afforded for association and study. Another building purchased by the Hungarian government offers living quarters for thirty research scholars. The value of the building is enhanced by the fact that it is located in the im-

mediate neighbourhood of the university. It is planned to build several private homes for research workers and to establish a college for girls. The Institute publishes two periodicals—the *Ungarische Jahrbücher* and the *Ungarische Bibliothek*.

Vienna

Hungarian culture in Vienna had been represented and furthered by the so-called *Pazmaneum* and the *Theresianum*, the former being an institution (still in existence) for preparing Catholic priests and the latter, a scholarship endowment which has recently come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction. In exchange the Ministry has obligated itself to provide for the schooling of twenty students.

The Hungarian Historical Institute of Vienna. Following the dissolution of the National Corps of Bodyguards to the King in 1919, it occurred to Count Klebelsberg, as the president of the Historical Society, that in order to make the archives of Vienna available for research, a historical institute should be established with the headquarters of the Guards as its headquarters. He realized his plans and today the Institute is located in very comfortable quarters with rooms, a library of more than 3,000 volumes, and a large study hall. It is under the direction of the National Hungarian Association of Museums and publishes its results in the source series of the Hungarian Historical Society. In 1925 the Institute offered three places for German research workers, in exchange for which Hungarian scholars have been proposed for membership in the Kaiser Wilhelm Institutes and German art and archaeological institutes of Florence and Athens.

Collegium Hungaricum of Vienna. The entire third floor of the Palace of the Guards is devoted to the accommodation, primarily, of Hungarian teachers studying at the University in preparation for teaching German and, secondarily, of any scholars engaged in study or research. There are places for thirty fellowship students.

Five or six rooms of the Palace are to be given over to doctors and scientific students. A Hungarian Institute of Art is also under consideration to be linked with the Deutsch-Ungarisches Barockforschungsinstitut. The Palace of the Guards is a most satisfactory centre for housing these institutions and even for promoting scholarly lectures in its auditorium.

Dorpat

At the time of the reorganization of the state university of Esthonia, several chairs of instruction were offered to Hungarian scholars. The chair of administrative law was consequently filled by a Hungarian professor, who soon organized a Hungarian library at the University, where the Hungarian language is taught by a special lecturer.

Sofia

In 1921 Dr. Géza Fehér, who during the War had been connected with the Hungarian Scientific Institute at Constantinople, was commissioned by the government to organize scientific and cultural relations with Bulgaria. Fehér conducted very valuable excavations and in recognition of his work the Bulgarian National Museum has entrusted him to lead further excavations in search of data concerning the Turkish-Bulgarian period.

Paris

The French government has manifested great courtesy toward Hungarian scholarship. From 1921 on, it has given from six to twelve fellowships annually to professors and students for the furtherance of scholarly relations. For the school year 1926-1927 it offered six fellowships worth as much as 7,500 francs each, besides fourteen fellowships of smaller value.

The question of reviving the chair of Hungarian at the University of Paris, which functioned from 1907 to 1914, was brought up in 1925. A *Collegium Hungaricum* is also planned. Nothing definite has been accomplished as yet in either case.

The United States

The International Education Board, founded by John D. Rockefeller in 1923, first offered very significant fellowships to Hungarian students in 1924. Hungarian instruction is also conducted in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, at Franklin and Marshall Academy, Franklin and Marshall College, and the Eastern Theological Seminary of the Reformed Church. The chair of Hungarian at the college was established in 1922 by the Reformed Church for the higher education of Hungarian youth in the United States in the language, history, literature, and culture of their parents to be given parallel with their college course.

Moreover, the Institute of International Education, the aim of which is to further international education through the exchange of books, students, and professors, has secured a number of exchange fellowships for Hungarian students in American colleges; in 1929-1930 there were eighteen Hungarian students holding scholarships in American colleges; over against this the Hungarian Ministry of Cults and Public Instruction has offered similar fellowships in Hungarian universities for American students. At present there also exists what is called the Jeremiah Smith Foundation, consisting of the salary of Jeremiah Smith for services in the stabilization of Hungarian currency under the auspices of the League of Nations. The income of this foundation is given by the Ministry to graduates of the Royal Joseph Technical University for further study in the United States.

Zurich

In 1926 the government purchased a home in Zurich to accommodate Hungarian students in the Technical University.

Stockholm

The Hungarian Society was formed in 1920 by Hungarians and their Swedish friends; by means of its cultural department it aims to fulfil the purposes of the Hungarian Institutes in other countries.

England

Following the introduction of the English language into the Realgymnasium and Real school, the necessity of establishing relations with schools in England was felt and accordingly, beginning with 1925, fellowship students were sent to the Universities of London, Oxford, and Aberdeen and from 1926, to Cambridge. In the school year 1920-1930 fourteen students were studying in England, nine of whom were spending their second year there. Further developments in this movement are expected.

Finland

The relation of the Hungarian nation to the Finns received actual expression in 1925 when a lecturer of the Hungarian language was given a position in the university at Helsinki. The Finn and Est nations look upon Hungary as a stronger and more

advanced brother and consequently Hungary makes special efforts to maintain and develop mutual relationships. A means to this end is the *Finn-Ugor Educational Congress*, which has already held three meetings—in Helsinki, Dorpat, and Budapest.

Poland

Hungary and Poland are linked together by various historical ties, and their histories cannot be advanced without accessibility to each other's archives. This will best be achieved by a historical library and research institute at Warsaw and a chair of Eastern-European history at Budapest, which are under consideration by scholars of the two nations. At present the lecturer of the Hungarian language at the University of Warsaw is also engaged in lecturing upon Hungarian history.

Leaders of the various Hungarian institutions abroad in 1924 established the *Association of Hungarian Institutes in Foreign Lands*.

SCHOLARSHIPS AT HOME

Prior to the Great War there were a great number of scholarships for pupils of secondary schools or higher schools, but owing to the devaluation of Austrian currency following the War, most of them became practically valueless.

The distressing consequences of the War were most keenly felt by the middle class, especially among those employed in state offices. The War and the subsequent devaluation of currency had completely ruined their financial status and rendered them incapable of educating their children out of their own meagre resources. The government felt it its duty to face this situation and lend aid. Since a change in the financial condition of this large class could not be hoped for in a short time, the government decided to create as many scholarships as the national treasury, itself rather weak, could permit.

The law, which was consequently passed, stipulates that these scholarships, ranging from 400 to 1,000 pengös each, are to be distributed to children of publicly employed parents. Scholarships are to be given only to students of secondary schools, universities, or other higher institutions, of good conduct, of average general ability and excellence in some particular field of study. Secondary school students are eligible only upon completion of the

sixth grade; exceptions to this rule may be made only in the case of students who have manifested unusual ability in their work. The Ministry determines the number of scholarships to be awarded in the various fields of study; it is desired to strike a happy balance among the various professions. Unless it is withdrawn for lack of merit, the enjoyment of a scholarship lasts until the completion of the course, in many cases even until the Doctor's degree is obtained. If students, following the completion of their course, desire to conduct research work or to pursue further study, they may have the privilege of their scholarship extended for two additional years. All candidates for scholarship must be officially recommended by some faculty, and the name of each student is annually reconsidered by the committee of award.

PART FOUR

VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

I. AGRICULTURAL INSTRUCTION

THE CONTINUATION SCHOOL

The continuation school is the second branch of compulsory elementary education. It is designed for children of the agricultural population as an institution for general agricultural instruction. It is of great importance, since 80 per cent of the children of farmers finish their education in it, and it keeps children between the ages of twelve and fifteen under moral and intellectual discipline. It also provides practical and necessary information for the oncoming agricultural generation and cultivates a sensitivity toward agricultural progress.

Its subjects are of two kinds: general and agricultural. The general group includes reading in agriculture, history, civics, natural science, chemistry, and practical arithmetic. Agricultural instruction aims to develop skill in the practical affairs of farm life and to awaken a sensitivity towards progress in agricultural pursuits. The agricultural group of subjects includes agriculture, tree and grape growing, raising of domestic animals, and apiculture for boys, and gardening, growing of flower and medicinal plants, fruit canning, poultry raising, fattening of hogs, sericulture, household economy, and sewing for girls.

The courses extend over three years, with each year varying in length from about eight to ten months, according to circumstances. In the winter months from November to March instruction is given during two afternoons and in the summer months during one afternoon of four periods. In winter the instruction is theoretical and in summer practical. Instruction is given in classrooms of the elementary school by the elementary teacher when the regular school is not in session. The maintenance of these schools is the duty of each rural community where

there are between 40 and 120 children between the ages of 12 and 15.

THE INDEPENDENT FARMING SCHOOL

Independent farming schools are set up in rural communities having 120 or more children between the ages of 12 and 15. These schools are a more developed form of the continuation school and are not to be considered as preparing its students for higher institutions. They aim purely to give practical instruction in and acquaintance with farming. It is compulsory for all children between the ages of twelve and fifteen who do not attend some other institution. Its course extends over three years of ten months each. Instruction in the summer is altogether practical while in the winter, with instruction in certain crafts, it is confined to theoretical work. The subjects taught are religion and ethics, agriculture, raising of domestic animals, milk production, gardening, grape growing and wine production, animal husbandry, bookkeeping, building, economic law, economics, household crafts, needlework, sewing and weaving and such general subjects as reading, writing, composition, geography, history, civics, arithmetic, hygiene, care of infants, and natural science.

SCHOOLS FOR TRAINING FARMERS

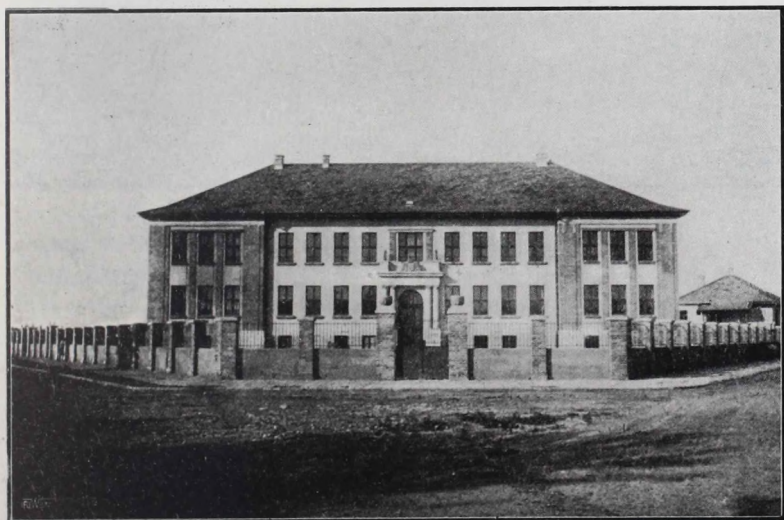
These schools are maintained by the state for the training of young men to be well-trained, up-to-date farmers. There are ten such schools at present. Instruction is primarily practical, while theoretical instruction is given in the sciences. All applicants must have completed their seventeenth birthday and the fourth or sixth grade of the elementary school. The course is two years in length and tuition fee is charged. These schools are well equipped with implements, libraries, maps, charts, and other necessary facilities, including an experimental field of about 300 acres.

AGRICULTURAL WINTER SCHOOLS

These schools aim to train the youth of the villages to meet the special problems of their own on little farms. They are set up in every district. Instruction is restricted by the characteristic products of the district and is confined to subjects allied with it.



STUDENTS' PHOTOGRAPHIC STUDIO OF THE REAL SCHOOL IN SOPRON (ÖDENBURG)



AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL IN SZÉKESFEHÉRVÁR

The theoretical courses given during the winter season are supplemented by practical courses during the summer. The course is of two years' length, and prizes are offered for the finest work produced during the course.

INSTRUCTION IN DAIRY FARMING

1. Occasional courses are given with the purpose of training managers for milk collecting and separating stations. The course is seven days in length for the collectors and fourteen for the separators.



AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL IN SZÉKESFEHÉRVÁR

2. Royal Training School for Dairy Farmers. Aim: To train workmen for milk production and cattle breeding. The course is two semesters in length; candidates must be at least seventeen years of age and must have completed at least four elementary grades.

3. Royal Vocational School for Milk Production. The aim of a year's course is partly to train business managers for milk industries and partly to train cheese and butter experts. Candidates for the former course must have completed an Agricultural Academy (see p. 183) and for the latter course the four

grades of the middle school and one year of apprenticeship in a milk industry. After two to three years of practical work and a final examination, students become experts in butter and cheese production.

TEACHERS OF AGRICULTURAL SUBJECTS

These teach the agricultural courses in the normal schools and conduct popular lectures in agriculture in surrounding communities. In the 24 districts of the country there is a teaching force of 24.

THE ROYAL AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS

The aim of the school, located at Putnok, is to train girls in agriculture, household economics, and business practice for employment in homes and various occupations. The course is three years in length, and girls below twenty years of age who have completed at least four grades of a secondary or middle school are admitted. The curriculum embraces general, agricultural, commercial, and household subjects as well as German, French, singing, music, needlework, and physical training. The training is of rather a practical nature.

There are five other girls' schools of agricultural nature in the country.

THE ROYAL SCHOOL OF FORESTRY

The lack of individuals trained in the care and protection of forests who are not graduates of the College of Forestry and therefore do not demand a high scale of salaries, had been long felt by owners of forests and by the State itself. This obvious need was met in 1918 by the establishment of the Vocational Forestry School, which, on account of Serbian and Roumanian occupations, was unable to get into actual operation until 1924 when it was moved to Esztergom. The school aims to train individuals on a theoretical basis but particularly in the practical side of forestry. The students are chosen on the basis of competition from those who have completed their seventeenth year but have not yet passed the twenty-first year of age and have also finished at least the fourth grade of a middle school and are of sound health and good character. The course is two years in length and is preceded by a year of apprenticeship under a forestry engineer. The subjects taught are mathematics, silviculture, forest protection, principles of forest evaluation and distribution, use of

forests, forestry constructions, hunting and rifling, laws and administration, elements of agriculture, bookkeeping and office work, drawing, hygiene, and first aid.

SCHOOLS FOR FORESTERS AND GAMEKEEPERS

At present there are two such schools—at Szeged and Esztergom. The course consists of one year of apprenticeship and one year of school work. The school aims to prepare individuals



MUNICIPAL TRADE SCHOOL FOR BOYS AND GIRLS IN DEBRECEN

for the care and protection of forests and game. Instruction is decidedly practical and theoretical instruction is closely linked with practical work. The subjects taught are writing and drawing, mathematics, hunting and fishing laws, hygiene, and first aid. The conditions for entrance are completion of six elementary grades, age between eighteen and twenty-six, and sound health and good character.

THE POULTRY FARM AND THE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN WORKERS AT GÖDÖLLÖ

The school and farm at Gödöllő were founded in 1895 and, having passed through a period of hardship during the War and

the period of foreign occupation, were thoroughly reorganized in 1920. The school has a farm of 142 acres. The aim of the school is to develop the poultry breeding of the country in two directions, namely, by the training of skilled workers and by raising breeding material for the country. The course in the school is one year, and annually ten to fifteen women obtain training there, receiving full and free board. Admission is restricted to those who have completed the middle school and are between the ages of sixteen and thirty.

This institution also engages in cattle, rabbit, and hog raising, apiculture, fruit and grape growing, vegetable growing, and the production of seeds. This gives students an opportunity to obtain practical training in many agricultural pursuits.

VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS FOR VITICULTURE AND VINICULTURE

1. There are schools for viticulture and viniculture at Eger, Kecskemét, Sopron, and Tarcal. The course is two years in length, and the conditions of entrance are the completion of the elementary school and sixteen years of age. The subjects taught are cultivation of vineyards, care of wines, fruit growing, gardening, flower growing, business correspondence, arithmetic, book-keeping, planimetry, chemistry, plant pathology, physics, botany, study of soils, apiculture, zoology, and agricultural sciences. The theoretical instruction, given 24 hours a week, is on the level of the third or fourth grade of secondary schools. The aim of the school is to train skilled producers of grapes.

2. Course for Cellarers at Budafok. The course lasts 12 months, and only those who have completed the two-year course at the Vocational School for Viticulture and Viniculture are admitted. The weekly theoretical instruction of 15 hours includes the care of wines, chemistry of wines, bookkeeping, business practices, vintage machinery, diseases of wines, cellar construction, and Hungarian and foreign wine laws.

3. Advanced Course for Grape and Wine Production. This is a full year course of academy ranking. Only such are admitted as have previously completed the University Faculty of Economics, some Academy of Agriculture, the College of Forestry, or some gardening institution after a full secondary school education. This course is one of specialization for individuals of higher economic training. Only 25 are admitted into the course

annually. Lasting 10 months, the course embraces the cultivation of vineyards, the care of wines, the chemistry of wines, entomology, botany, study of soils, technology of wine production, wine bacteriology, and chemistry of protective materials.

THE ROYAL HORTICULTURAL INSTITUTE, BUDAPEST

The Budapest Horticultural Institute was founded in 1894 with the aim of providing practical training in flower growing and commercial gardening. The conditions of admission are age between sixteen and twenty, at least four grades of the secondary schooling, sound health, and good character. Recently 80 per cent of the students had certificates of maturity from secondary schools. The course, lasting three years, embraces zoology, descriptive geometry, mechanics, climatology, apiculture, botany, drawing, chemistry, cultivation of decorative plants, fruit and vegetable growing, land surveying, study of soils and fertilizers, landscape gardening, plant pathology, conserving, chemical laboratory work, planning of gardens, technological exercises, garden architecture, growing of medicinal plants, commerce, economics, business, agriculture, and seminars in the growing of decorative plants, vegetables, and fruit.

THE HIGHER AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL

Agricultural schools of a secondary grade have long been lacking in Hungary. The desire on the part of parents to provide students who had completed the four grades of a middle or secondary school had increasingly been brought to the attention of the Ministry. Directly before the War the government took steps to establish such a school on the plan of higher industrial and commercial schools. Forestalled by the outbreak of the War, the school was finally set up in 1921. At present there are four such schools with four grades. They aim to give secondary training to students who have completed four grades of a middle or secondary school and desire to follow agricultural pursuits or to take courses preparing for railroad employees, postmasters, notaries, etc. Every school must have at least 35 acres of land for agricultural work. The subjects taught are religion and ethics, Hungarian language and literature, history, geography, natural history, chemistry and mineralogy, physics, mathematics, descriptive geometry, study of the soil, plant cultivation, cultiva-

tion of gardens, vineyards, pastures, and forests, raising of domestic animals, economics, business economics, bookkeeping and correspondence, law, hygiene, physical culture, and singing; German is taught as an elective subject. The Higher Agricultural School, confined mainly to children of small landowners, is of great significance to agricultural Hungary in that it makes for the training of scientific farmers, which, in turn, means increased and better production.

ACADEMIES OF AGRICULTURE

The first agricultural institution in Hungary was founded by Count George Festetich at Keszthely in 1797 with the title of *Georgikon*, exactly five years before the first agricultural school in Germany, and aimed to train supervisors for large manors. Soon afterwards, in 1818, another agricultural school was started by Prince Albert Kázmér at Mágyaróvár; this school grew by leaps and bounds and became the cradle of scientific agricultural research in Hungary. The history of the agricultural school at Debrecen reaches back to 1866. As a result of the Treaty of Trianon Hungary lost two well-equipped agricultural academies at Kassa and Kolozsvár.

The regular professors of these colleges are appointed by the head of the state and the others by the Minister of Agriculture. Admission is restricted to holders of a certificate of maturity from a secondary school. The course, covering three years and including both practical and theoretical subjects, embraces chemistry, physics, agricultural botany, agrogeology, animal anatomy and physiology, exercises in agriculture gardening, and grape growing, organic and inorganic chemistry, botany, bacteriology, raising of domestic animals, milk industry, agricultural mechanics, land surveying and mechanical drawing, agricultural zoology, plant pathology, agricultural management, economics, economic bookkeeping, animal hygiene and diseases, agricultural technology, building construction, forestry, and grafting. All subjects are taught in conjunction with practical work. Three comprehensive examinations are given: the preliminary at the end of the first year, the professional at the end of the second year, and the final at the completion of the course.

These schools are all adequately equipped. The academy at Mágyaróvár has about 400 acres of land, 51 buildings, a library

with 18,598 volumes, laboratories, a meteorological station, and an ambulatory clinic. The academy at Keszthely has about 350 acres of land, 36 buildings, and a library of 14,953 volumes. The Academy at Debrecen has about 640 acres of land, 32 buildings, a library of 12,000 volumes, a meteorological station, and a tobacco experimental station.

II. THE ROYAL VETERINARY COLLEGE

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The foundations of instruction in veterinary surgery were laid by Joseph II, when in 1782 he ordered the establishment within the faculty of medicine of an institution for animal diseases. A chair of veterinary surgery was forthwith instituted. Separate training in veterinary sciences, however, was started only in 1799 with a course of eight months, which was later extended to a year. In 1851 the institute was made a separate school, which gradually developed until in 1880 it became the Academy of Veterinary Surgery with a four-year course and with a larger faculty. The standard of instruction also rose. Finally in 1899 the school was raised to the rank of a university and received its present name, with the right of conferring the Doctor's degree and electing a Rector. Meanwhile, since new chairs of instruction were added, building facilities and general equipment were increased.

AIM AND ORGANIZATION

The school aims to train veterinarians and to prepare them to practise; to confer the Doctor's degree upon eligible candidates; to develop the veterinary and relevant natural sciences; and to act in an advisory capacity in the field of veterinary sciences when called upon by the state. Graduates are employed to a large extent by the state, county, city, and community administrations; only a small percentage engage in private practice.

The organization of the school is similar to that of the faculties of the universities. The affairs of the school are administered by the faculty under the leadership of a Rector who is chosen every two years. The professors are ranked in the same way as those of the university. Ordinary and extraordinary professors are appointed for life by the state head upon the recommendation of the faculty, and assistants are appointed by the

Minister of Agriculture also upon recommendation of the faculty. The faculty in 1924-1925 consisted of nine ordinary professors, four extraordinary professors, eleven lecturers of professorial rank, thirteen private docents, and fifteen assistants.

STUDENTS AND CURRICULUM

Enrolment as a regular student takes place on the basis of a certificate of maturity. Anyone may become a special student provided he has completed his seventeenth year of age and possesses sufficient preliminary knowledge. The course consists of eight semesters. To this is added a semester of practice work, which candidates spend at some government estate. Without this practice work no one is entitled to a diploma.

Subjects included in the curriculum must be studied by all students. The following courses are taught: zoology, botany, botanical exercises, physics, chemistry, chemical exercises, systematic anatomy, anatomical exercises, parasitology, tissues, topographical anatomy, evolution, physiology, drugs and poisons, pharmacology, zoological genetic methods, pathological anatomy, clinical propaedeutics, clinical exercises, propaedeutics in clinical surgery, exercises in clinical surgery, general bacteriological exercises, milk hygiene, meat inspection, surgery and ophthalmology, obstetrics, animal health administration, history of veterinary sciences, contagious diseases, and public administration.

There are optional subjects, such as methods of vaccination, serums, swine diseases, which are taught by special lecturers.

Students are required to pass a preliminary and three final examinations. The doctorate is conferred on graduate veterinarians who have passed a special examination in two study groups and published a dissertation. The honorary doctorate is conferred upon individuals of special merit. A diploma in veterinary surgery obtained in another country entitles its holder to practice in Hungary only upon its acceptance by the faculty of the school.

III. THE ROYAL COLLEGE OF MINING AND FORESTRY

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The Royal College of Mining and Forestry was founded in 1763 at Selmecbánya, where it continued its work until the

Czech occupation in 1919. It is the first school of mines of college rank to be established, and as a technical school it is one of the best.

For ten years after its foundation the school was under the direction of the nobility of *Selmecbánya*, and in 1770 it rose to the rank of an academy, offering a three-year course. In 1795 it became a royally accredited institution. A separate branch of forestry was opened in 1809 with a two-year course. The course in forestry was soon extended to three years and in 1846 it was united with the Academy of Mines; the institution from this time on bears the title of the Academy of Mines and Forestry. The language of instruction in 1867 was changed from the German to Hungarian. In 1872 independent departments went into effect with a three-year curriculum, with the entrance requirement of a full secondary school education, and with the system of state examinations. In 1904 important changes were effected. The school changed its name to the Royal Hungarian College of Mining and Forestry, all courses were extended to four years in length, and the school was permitted to elect a Rector.

In 1919 the College was forced to leave its old location as a result of Czech occupation. Having lost its large library, laboratories, collections, and other equipment, it was forced to move to Sopron, where for three years it lived the darkest days of its history of one hundred and fifty years. It was only in 1922 that it received the buildings of the Military Training School at Sopron and in these it has since been endeavouring to regain its former strength.

ORGANIZATION

Supervision is exercised by the Ministries of Finances and Agriculture in conjunction. The object of the school is to train engineers in mining, foundry, and forestry. Accordingly, there are three relevant departments, at the head of each of which is a Dean elected from the College Council. The affairs of the school are administered by the College Council, which is composed of the ordinary and extraordinary professors. The Rector is elected for two years and the Deans for one. A secretary takes care of the Rector's office and finances are in the hands of the Quaestor and the Comptroller.

TEACHING STAFF

The staff consists of ordinary and extraordinary professors, lecturers, adjuncts, and assistants. At present there are 28 chairs of instruction, with 24 ordinary and 4 extraordinary professors.

CURRICULUM

The course in each department is eight semesters in length. Students are admitted upon presentation of a certificate of maturity from a secondary school. Graduates of secondary schools in other countries are admitted only on condition that their diploma is equivalent to the certificate of maturity in Hungary. Special students may be admitted to the various courses.

Department of Mining

In the Department of Mining the following subjects are offered: mathematics, descriptive geometry, chemistry, physics, economics, mechanical drawing, mechanics, industrial health, graphostatics, mechanical technology, geodesy, analytical chemistry, chemical laboratory, chemistry of carbons, general mineralogy, administrative law, bookkeeping, electrotechnics, elements of machines, building construction, systematic mineralogy, mining, metallurgy, turbines, electrical measurements, general geology, paleontology, encyclopedics of heating, mining engines, historical geology, study of lands, private and commercial law, measurement of mines, maps, laboratory in machines, problems of workmen, history of mining, furnace work, field planning, electrical engineering, mining laws, and metallurgical exercises.

Department of Foundry Engineering

In the Department of Foundry Engineering the following subjects are offered: mathematics, descriptive geometry, chemistry, physics, economics, mechanical drawing, mechanics, graphostatics, mechanical technology, mineralogy, physical chemistry, qualitative and analytical chemistry, chemistry of carbons, administrative law, iron implements, elements of machines, building construction, heating, electrotechnics, geography, chemical laboratory, furnaces, turbines, electrical measurements, metallographics, bookkeeping, crucibles, geodesy, private and commercial law, industrial health, iron and steel casting, applied

metallographics of iron, iron assaying, gas and carbon analysis, laboratory in machines, problems of workmen, rolling, plan of iron mills, examination of materials, metallurgical encyclopedies, and mining and water laws.

Department of Forestry

In the Department of Forestry the following subjects are offered: mathematics, descriptive geometry, general and inorganic chemistry, physics, general botany, bookkeeping, mechanical drawing, organic chemistry, botany, private and commercial law, land measurements, mineralogy, study of the soil, plant pathology, zoology, administrative law, economics, mechanics, electro-technics, maps, geography, forest evaluation, graphostatics, building construction, transportation, development of forests, hunting and fishing, bridge construction, shooting, agriculture, forestry engineering, forest administration, commerce of wood, arithmetic, regulation of streams, forestry laws, protection of trees, applied forestry, forestry technology, and forestry policies.

EXAMINATIONS

Ordinary students are required to take examinations at the end of each semester. At the end of the fourth semester the first general examination must be taken, consisting of written and oral work. The second general examination is taken at the end of the eighth semester; it consists of four weeks of laboratory, written and oral work. The rules in force regarding students from other countries are those that prevail at the Technical University.

IV. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The history of Hungarian industry began at the period when the nation was converted to Christianity. During the incessant wars of the Árpád period the monasteries served as the refuge of craftsmen, and it was the monks who also revived industrial instruction in Hungary. Historical data show traces of industrial instruction as far back as the thirteenth century. The pioneers were the members of the Benedictine Order, who not only instructed young people in their many monasteries and industrial

plants, but as itinerant teachers also carried as much as possible of their knowledge into the very homes. There were also other orders which taught other phases of craftsmanship, while convents of nuns gave instruction in needlework. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries city schools turned their attention to practical subjects which served the industrial and commercial needs of the people. In the next two centuries arithmetic, geometry, and drawing were systematically taught and the Piarists were most enthusiastically engaged in the instruction of masons, carpenters, and stone-cutters. The *Ratio Educationis* of 1777 ordered all elementary schools to make drawing a required subject. This movement was furthered by the decrees of 1786 and 1795, which regulated attendance in the Sunday apprentice schools, and by the *Ratio* of 1806, which made attendance in Sunday apprentice schools compulsory and also introduced courses which were designed to prepare for craftsmanship and commerce. It is in this period that the oldest institution of industrial instruction, the School of Industrial Art at Budapest, which is still standing and flourishing, was founded.

The foundation of Sunday apprentice schools was the first recognition of the great need of caring for the education of youth falling outside of the strict confines of schools; this occurred at the time when guilds became more and more absorbed in the protection of the rights of their industry and members and in the regulation of the training of apprentices. These schools were followed by various schools of drawing and mathematics, each with the task of giving to industrial apprentices instruction in arithmetic, geometry, natural sciences, and drawing. This movement was sporadic all over the world and progressed only slowly, since elementary education, which was to form the basis, had not as yet been fully developed.

In the nineteenth century interested bodies manifested more and more zeal in the problem of educating apprentices. The Commercial Association at Pest in 1830 opened a school for commercial apprentices and the National Industrial Association started a movement to organize the education of apprentices on a national scale. About this time came the decree concerning the organization of upper elementary schools and Sunday apprentice schools, the former to cultivate the arts and crafts and the latter to help the younger generation of industrial workers to

make up whatever education they had missed in their younger days. This was followed by the decree obligating all craftsmen to send their apprentices to the above mentioned schools if there were any in the neighbourhood. The growing interest of the authorities as well as commercial and industrial circles in the question of apprentice education played a considerable part in the fact that in 1868 schooling for apprentices was made compulsory.

Even in the cultural movements of the last three decades of the nineteenth century and especially in the development of education in this period, it is surprising to find extant the endeavour to place vocational education on par with education in other fields. This tendency received concrete expression in the efforts that were made in the foundation of institutions of a practical nature. To this period falls the foundation of the Joseph Technical University. The lasting creations of this period are: The Royal Higher State Industrial School (1880), The National School of Industrial Arts (1880), The Royal Industrial Museum of Technology (1883), and the Higher Industrial School (1872), now located in the occupied city of Kassa.

Following the industrial act of 1884, which ensured industrial instruction, the activities of the government were directed to the task of developing the organization of industrial education throughout the country. On the basis of the plans worked out by the *National Council of Industrial Instruction* (1892—called the *National Council of Industrial and Commercial Instruction* from 1900 on) existing institutions were further developed and in the industrial centres of the country a whole series of industrial schools came into existence with the purpose of training technical workers for industrial fields. In the development of the organization and the location of the schools the Hungarian government wished to give every opportunity to the nationalities in the country to prepare for practical vocations; consequently, they paid special attention to those parts of the country in which the nationalities were concentrated.

The War and the subsequent events—revolutions and the dismemberment of the country—placed heavy responsibilities on the nation with respect to the organization of industrial instruction which in the preceding quarter of a century had risen to a high level. As a result of dismemberment the country lost a considerable number of its industrial schools. Out of fifty industrial

schools maintained in part or in whole by the state, thirty-one fall within occupied territory. The lost institutions are: one higher industrial school, nineteen industrial vocational schools, four schools of handicraft, five state aided industrial schools for women, and two industrial museums of technology.

Among the last there was a whole series of institutions which were equipped in a model way and were organic parts of Hungarian culture. Some of them are not matched by those remaining in the country. As in so many other fields, fate has cast its dark shadow over the organization of industrial instruction also; work that had seemed almost concluded must now be begun all over again.

The government considers industrial instruction of the greatest importance. This conviction found concrete expression in the industrial law of 1922, which provides for industrial training in the elementary schools. Public consciousness and patriotic organizations all co-operate with the state in the interests of the remaining industrial schools.

ORGANIZATION OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

The organization of industrial education now in force constitutes an organic part of the national educational program. Its aims are such as rise out of the industrial situation or the cultural aims of the state. Its substance is to care for the cultivation of the various working forces operating in the industrial fields of the country.

Institutions of industrial instruction fall into three groups with reference to organizations: (1) apprentice schools with a program of nine hours' weekly instruction for apprentices employed in shops; (2) practical industrial schools equipped for full time instruction and laboratory work; (3) extension courses for craftsmen. In the second group there are schools of handicraft, industrial vocational schools, higher industrial schools, and industrial schools for women. This grouping does not interlock, inasmuch as each group has its own special object, to which its own curriculum is adapted. The essence of the grouping is that each institution aims to train its students into workmen of earning capacity with a desire for further cultivation in their own vocations.

In the organization and curriculum of the various ranks of in-

dustrial schools there is a common regulation that industrial training cannot be received privately, either in whole or in part, and that private examinations cannot be taken. Students coming to Hungary from similar schools in other countries must take an examination in the subjects where the curricula in question differ.

The administration and supervision of industrial instruction is in the hands of the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction and the Ministry of Commerce. To insure uniformity in policy there was established the *National Council of Industrial and Commercial Instruction*. The schools are controlled through the superintendent and, besides, by district supervisors in the case of apprentice schools, and vocational supervisors in the case of practical industrial schools.

The teaching staff of these schools is composed of graduates of the Technical University or of some art school. Every teacher is required to have practical experience in his field, and for this reason each candidate spends a certain time in an institution of industrial education and in some industry. Instructors in the shops are graduates of industrial schools or are chosen from the field on merit. For further education of teachers summer courses are given.

The publication of suitable books is under constant care. This is served by two series of publications—the Industrial Schools' Library and the Tradesmen's Library. These contain popular presentations of technical subjects and aim to give tradesmen an opportunity to increase their knowledge outside the walls of the school. This same purpose is served by numerous pamphlets, maps, drawings, and photographs which are published from time to time. An excellent means of education is the Travelling Industrial Library and Collections.

INDUSTRIAL APPRENTICE SCHOOLS

The industrial act of 1884 required on the one hand that employers send their apprentices to school while they are of school age and on the other that every community with 40 apprentices must set up an apprentice school or with at least 25 must provide for apprentice courses and, where the number is less than 25, students of school age are required to attend continuation schools.

Apprentice schools as a rule have three grades. They are of

three types: general, general with some vocational instruction, and vocational. The subjects are divided into two groups, namely (a) general—religion and ethics, Hungarian language and business correspondence, geography and history, arithmetic, physics and chemistry, civics and economics, and drawing; (b) vocational—industrial bookkeeping, drawing and construction, and technology. The school year consists of ten months with nine weekly hours of instruction, one of which must be in religion and ethics.

One of the finest objects of the apprentice schools is to train students in the principles of moral life. When not under the restraints and guidance of home, students are provided ample opportunity to develop spiritually. To this end there are self-culture societies, glee clubs, and the like. The students' development into strong, disciplined manhood is promoted by physical training courses which are compulsory in all apprentice schools. The moral and patriotic training of apprentices is improved greatly by conferences under the guidance of teachers and by the distribution of prizes awarded for meritorious work.

Scattered throughout the country are apprentice homes in connection with schools. These aim to take the place of the home and afford guidance, care, supervision, lodging, and board to apprentices. Their number is increasing, especially in view of the strong movement initiated by various interested organizations. In general the effort is being made to bring churches, societies, schools, and the authorities into co-operation in order to solve adequately the problems of apprentice education.

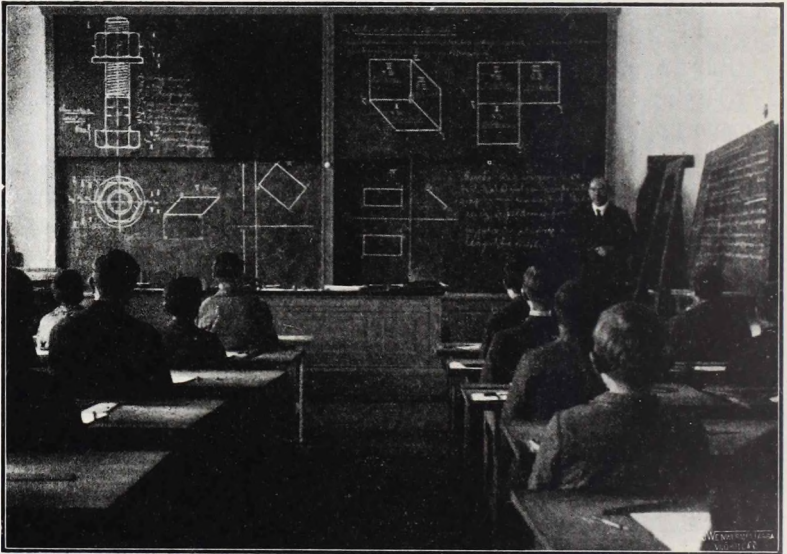
SCHOOLS OF HANDICRAFTS

The schools of handicrafts are institutions of domestic industry. Their aim is to dignify and develop a domestic industry already existing in a community or to start such an industry in a place where favourable conditions exist. Training is restricted to work in the shops and the preparation of saleable articles; theoretical education is given in the apprentice schools. As a consequence of its dismemberment, the country lost all but one of its schools of handicrafts. There is only the basket-weaving school at Békés. The course is three years in length and candidates having passed their fourteenth birthday and completed

six elementary grades are admitted. The institution is well equipped, providing even for the employment of graduated students.

INDUSTRIAL VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

The aim of the industrial vocational schools is to produce skilled tradesmen with both practical and theoretical training and with the desire to cultivate and develop their trade. A great



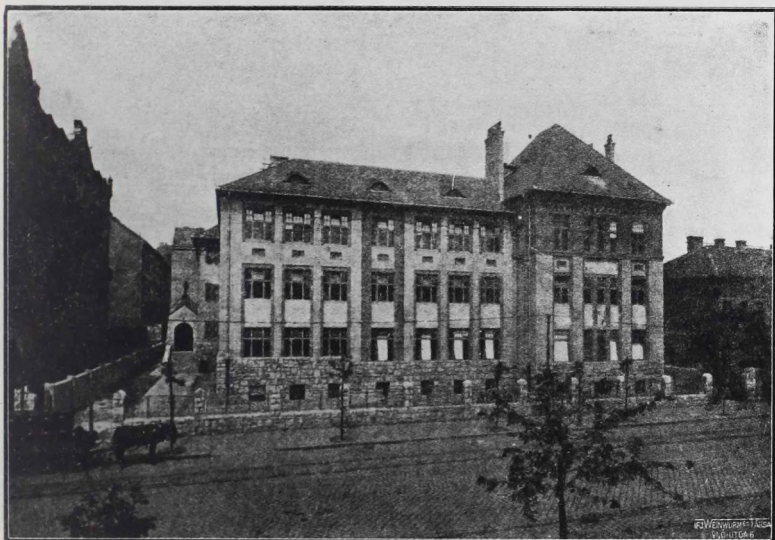
CLASSROOM FOR DRAWING IN METAL WORK (DEBRECEN)

deal of attention is paid to cultivating in students an affection for their vocation. This school cannot be regarded as preparatory to a higher institution; it trains young men directly for the trades.

The emphasis is placed on practical work; only as much theoretical material is embraced as is necessary for the trade and is an inducement for further study. The organization and curriculum are uniform. The course consists of three years, with each extending over eleven months. The schedule includes 46 hours for the week, one-third of which is spent upon theoretical work in the shops and the rest, upon practical work. The en-

trance requirements are fourteen years of age, healthy physical body, and the completion of four grades of a middle school or secondary school.

The following subjects are taught: religion, Hungarian language, mathematics, physics and chemistry, geometry and descriptive geometrical drawing, freehand drawing, hygiene, physical training, technology, technical drawing, descriptive mechanics,



"BAROSS GÁBOR"—STATE HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOL FOR BOYS IN BUDAPEST

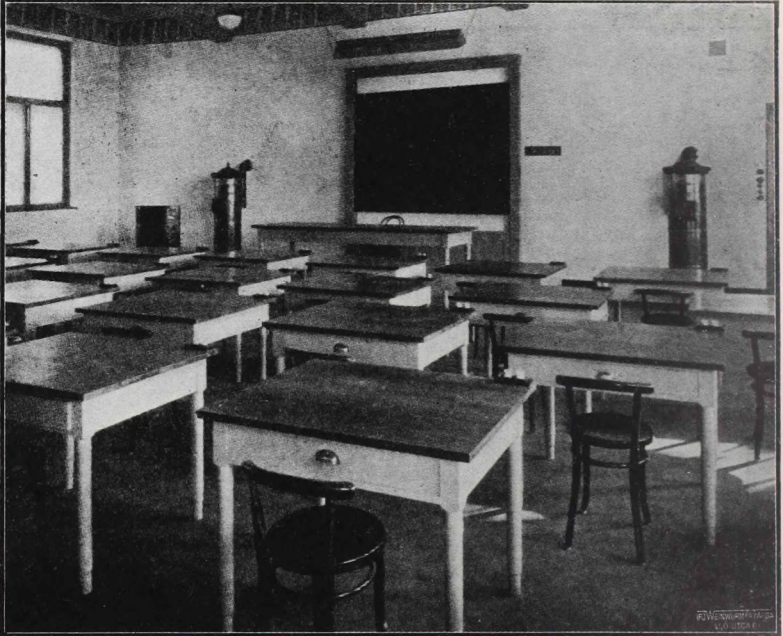
descriptive electrotechnics, mechanics, instruments, electrotechnics, electrical equipment, and shop work.

Another important task of the industrial vocational schools is to conduct extension courses for workers already engaged in the trades.

In 1925 the following state institutions belonged to this group: State Vocational Schools of Wood and Metal Industries at Debrecen and Győr; State Vocational Schools for Wood Industries at Szeged and Ujpest; State Vocational Schools of Metal Industries at Miskolc, Nagykanizsa, and Pécs; State Vocational School of Mechanical and Electrical Industries at Budapest; and State Textile Industrial School at Budapest.

HIGHER INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS

In the present organization of industrial instruction the higher industrial schools constitute the higher branch. They aim to prepare artisans who can carry on their trade independently. In conformity with this general aim the courses are presented



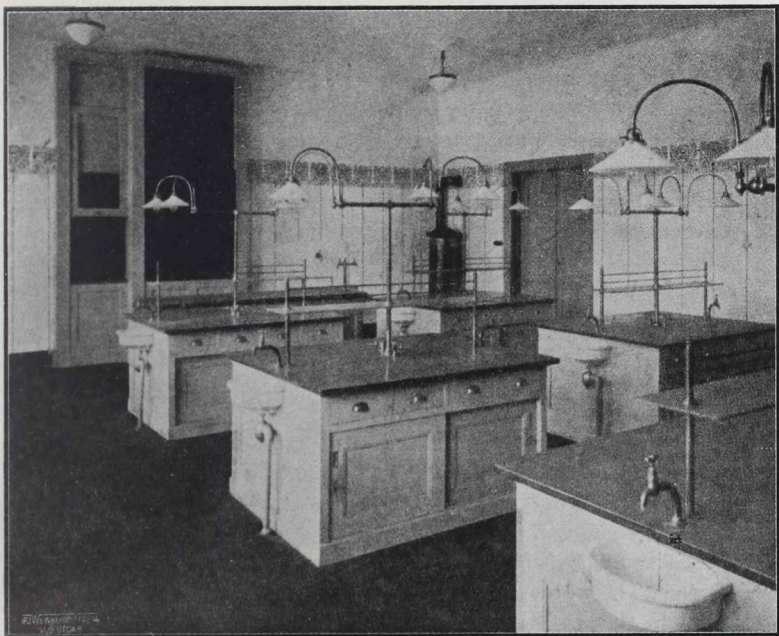
"BAROSS GÁBOR"—STATE HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS FOR BOYS IN BUDAPEST
PRACTICE ROOM

with a decided stress upon the practical, and the essential substance of the curriculum is the shop work and laboratory.

With respect to their curriculum and organization, the higher industrial schools are uniform. The course extends over three years and the schedule includes 44 hours weekly. All shop and laboratory work is done in the school, and during the summer vacation students are required to attach themselves to some industrial enterprise for the purpose of gaining practical experience. The requirements for admission are fifteen years of age,

completion of four grades of some middle or secondary school, one year of practical work at some trade, and an entrance examination. The higher industrial schools conduct extension courses for tradesmen already in the field.

At present there are three higher industrial schools—two at Budapest and one at Szeged. The School at Budapest has four



"BAROSS GÁBOR"—STATE HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOL FOR BOYS IN BUDAPEST
CHEMISTRY LABORATORY

departments, namely, mechanics, metal industries, wood industries, and chemical industries. The school at Szeged embraces only mechanics, and the School of Building Construction at Budapest, only the building construction trade.

The subjects in the Higher Industrial School are religion, Hungarian language, mathematics, geometry, physics, chemistry, descriptive geometry and geometrical drawing, freehand drawing, economics, industrial bookkeeping, hygiene, physical culture, mechanics, mechanical drawing, construction, constructional draw-

ing, technology, agricultural mechanics, building construction, iron construction, railroad mechanics, electrotechnics, locksmithery, descriptive mechanics, furnishing of buildings, copying, home furnishings, analytical chemistry, organic and inorganic chemistry, technology in inorganic chemistry, mineralogy, technology in agricultural chemistry, textile chemistry, laboratory, and shop work.

The subjects in the School of Building Construction at Budapest are religion and ethics, Hungarian language and literature, economic and legal sciences, industrial bookkeeping, hygiene, mathematics and geometry, physics, chemistry, mechanics, descriptive geometry, perspectives, freehand printing, freehand drawing, copying, physical culture, construction materials, masonry, carpentry, foundations, measurement of land, iron and iron cement construction, building construction, building styles, household and industrial construction, construction of homes, budget, building construction regulations, construction management, construction of roads and bridges, and preparation of models.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS FOR WOMEN

Owing to certain difficulties in locating women in intellectual professions, greater significance has come to be attached to institutions for women which prepare for practical vocations. Basically, the common aim of these schools is to train women in the various branches of industry which are largely performed by women. The value of these schools lies in the fact that they provide a chance for women who desire to develop their abilities for their own satisfaction only and to those women who desire to make use of their training in maintaining themselves or their families.

In this group of industrial schools belong eighteen institutions maintained by the state, cities, or denominations. The largest in size is the State Industrial School for Women at Budapest, which in a measure sets the pace for the other schools. There are six departments—sewing, embroidery, dressmaking, millinery, a continuation course in the first three departments, and a course in making fashionable articles. The first three courses extend over two years each and the last three, over one year each. Any candidate may be admitted to the institution who has com-

pleted her fourteenth year and four grades of some middle or secondary school. To the continuation course only those may be admitted in a limited number who have already prepared for some woman's trade and have completed their eighteenth birthday.

The courses offered are religion, Hungarian language, history and geography, arithmetic and bookkeeping, freehand drawing, hygiene, physical culture, materials and styles, technical drawing, and exercises.

INDUSTRIAL EXTENSION COURSES

The aim of the extension courses is to provide an opportunity for tradesmen, their assistants and workers to increase their knowledge. They may be grouped as follows: (1) Winter Courses in Building Construction, (2) Mechanical Courses, (3) General Vocational Courses, (4) Practical Courses in various branches of industry, (5) Travelling Courses, (6) Courses in women's industries. These courses are conducted by the industrial schools in specified districts. The centres of these districts are Budapest, Debrecen, Győr, Miskolc, Pécs, and Szeged.

THE SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS AT BUDAPEST

This is the oldest industrial school in Hungary, being in existence since 1773. It is maintained by the city of Budapest. In its present form instruction falls into three groups—preparatory instruction in drawing and in shop work, and a continuation course.

Students are admitted to the two-year preparatory course on the basis of an entrance examination and the requirement of four grades in the middle school. The second division embraces woodwork, violin making, textile work, bookbinding, mimeographing, silverwork, pottery and enamelling, decorating, glass painting, glass mosaic work, and plaster of Paris work in a three year, full-time course, and photography, dressmaking and millinery, with a two-year half-day course. Only those who have completed the preparatory course may be admitted to shopwork, except in the case of woodwork, violin making, and millinery. The school also offers several evening courses in drawing and a winter course of four years in masonry, stone-cutting, and carpentry.

V. COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Like the other branches of education, commercial education is also divided into three classifications—lower, middle, and upper instruction. The lower is taken care of by schools for commercial apprentices and by special courses, the middle by higher commercial schools and courses, and the upper by the commercial department of the University Faculty of Economic Sciences. The backbone of commercial education is the higher commercial schools.

HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

Historical Development

The first commercial school in Hungary, founded by Julius Emanuel Bivanco in 1830 through the medium of the Civil Commercial Association of Pest, was a private institution. Commercial subjects, however, had been previously taught in various schools, especially the Sunday continuation schools. In Bibesco's school admission was accorded any student who had completed four years of elementary school or who took an entrance examination. Other similar schools were soon founded.

Commercial instruction was given a significant impetus in 1857 by the foundation of the Commercial Academy of Pest which became the leading commercial school in the country. Its rank was enhanced by the fact that admission was allowed only to such as had finished three grades of the Real school or four of the Gymnasium. About this time the Joseph Industrial School, which later became the Technical University, also provided commercial training. With other commercial schools being founded by private individuals and associations, in response to a generally felt need the government in the seventies issued an official organization of commercial schools and brought them under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction. They had hitherto been within the sphere of the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce. This plan, distributing commercial instruction among lower courses, commercial middle schools, and higher commercial schools underwent a change in 1885 when the three-year commercial middle school was supplemented by another type. This was so arranged that an extra grade was added to the six grades of the middle schools (Bür-

gerschule), thus having the fifth to seventh grades constitute a commercial middle school. This union, however, did not prove satisfactory and was broken in 1895. At this time all middle commercial instruction was unified, the institutions receiving the name Higher Commercial Schools and coming under the direct control and supervision of a special superintendent. The requirement of entrance examinations for admission was discontinued and instead of a final examination the commercial maturity examination was instituted. This scheme remained in force for twenty years, and in 1915 it underwent slight modifications in its curriculum, schedule of studies, and examinations. In 1916 commercial instruction was started in the secondary schools for girls but without success and was successively discontinued until 1924, for the higher commercial schools for girls started in 1909 on the plan of the boys' schools had proved their worth and were rapidly progressing.

The complete change in organization and curriculum went into effect in 1920. The four-year higher commercial school was divided into two courses, commercial and economical, of two years each. The former laid stress upon smaller business enterprises and the latter dealt chiefly with commerce on a wider scope.

Working afternoons were introduced into the curriculum. These aimed to accustom students to physical work, to develop their skill and taste, and to train them in democratic respect for physical work. Instruction embraced light work in the sphere of agriculture, industry, and commerce.

Present Organization and Curriculum

Neither the differentiation of the school into two separate courses nor the working afternoons proved satisfactory, and a thorough revision of the curriculum was made in 1927 with the following subjects (the Roman ciphers indicate the years in which the respective subjects are taught):

1. Religion and ethics—according to the program of the respective denominations.
2. Hungarian language and literature. I. Spelling, composition, grammar, and prose studies. II. Poetical literature. III. History of Hungarian literature to the nineteenth century. IV. History of Hungarian literature to modern times.

3. History. I. Ancient. II. Modern. III. Hungarian history. IV. Fundamentals of sociology and history of economics.

4. Law. II. Common and Civil Law. III. Commercial.

5. Economics. IV. Fundamentals, production, distribution, profit, economic and social policies, and fundamentals of finance.

6. Geography. I. Fundamentals of economic geography. Asia, Africa, America, and Australia. II. Europe. III. Hungary. IV. World economic geography.

7a. Chemistry. II. Inorganic. III. Organic.

7b. Merchandise. IV.

8. Physics. I. Fundamentals.

9. Mathematics and arithmetic. I. Elements of algebra; squares and equations. Pythagorean theorem. Graphs. II. Roots; elements of logarithm; interest. III. Coupons, loans, and principles of insurance.

10. Commercial arithmetic. I. Fundamental operations with whole and fractional numbers, currency, measurements, averages, percentage, notes and bills, and interest. II. Exchange, accounts, prices, trusts, gold and silver standards, money rates, and parity of denominational currency. III. Foreign notes, debts, stock exchange, interest rates. IV. Notes, bills of exchange, prices, parity in prices, and business plans.

11. Business. I. Fundamental principles, personnel, articles, instruments, marketing, and banking.

12. Bookkeeping. I. Simple and double entry. II. Banks, factories, associations, and partnerships.

13. Commercial letter-writing. II. Business letters and forms. III. Miscellaneous.

14. Office practice. IV. Bookkeeping, letter-writing, organization, and administration.

15. German language and correspondence. Graduated reading, writing, grammar, conversation, and business correspondence in all four grades.

16. Another foreign language and correspondence. Subject matter as above.

17. Shorthand. I. Composition. II. Office.

18. Physical Training. I-IV. Exercises, games, excursions, and competitions. Lectures in hygiene.

19. Typewriting. IV. Letters, manuscripts, transcription.

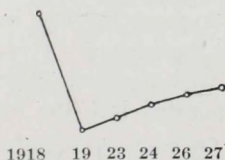
20. An optional course in typewriting and in penmanship.

Admission to higher commercial schools is restricted to students who have completed four grades in a middle or secondary school. Students from foreign countries are admitted on the basis of parity.

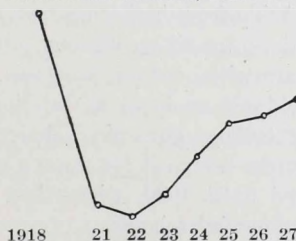
Students completing the four-year course are eligible for commercial maturity examinations, consisting of a written and oral examination. The written examination includes Hungarian, German, and French languages and correspondence, commercial arithmetic and bookkeeping, while the subjects of the oral examinations are Hungarian literature, history, commercial history, law, commercial geography, chemistry, and merchandise.

Holders of commercial maturity certificates find employment chiefly in commercial, industrial, transportation, and financial enterprises. The certificate is honoured also for admission to transportation courses, academies of economics, training schools of teachers for middle schools, College of Mines and Forestry,

NUMBER OF HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS, 1918-1927



NUMBER OF STUDENTS OF THE HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS, 1918-1927



Departments of Agriculture and Commerce in the University Faculty of Economic Sciences, and Training Schools for teachers of higher Commercial Schools.

SCHOOLS FOR COMMERCIAL APPRENTICES

These schools came out of the Sunday and evening courses started in 1830. The Act of 1868, by extending the school age to fifteen, further developed these courses by requiring apprentices to attend a three-year continuation course. These courses were rounded out in 1872 by addition of bookkeeping, commercial correspondence, commercial arithmetic, and agriculture. These schools subsequently underwent occasional changes and in 1897 they were placed under the jurisdiction of the director of in-

dustrial instruction in the Ministry of Cults and Public Instruction and received the classification of lower commercial schools.

At present parishes having at least forty candidates for commercial apprenticeship must organize a school and for at least twenty-six candidates, a commercial course. Instruction is given during the week, but not after six P.M. without permission of the authorities. The subjects taught are reading, composition, geography, general arithmetic, commercial arithmetic, office practice, commercial bookkeeping, commercial correspondence, physics, merchandise, bills of exchange, economics, and penmanship. Admission is accorded to commercial apprentices of twelve years of age who have completed the elementary school. For candidates who cannot meet this requirement a special preparatory course is offered. The schools are supervised jointly by the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction and the Minister of Commerce through the director of higher commercial schools.

COMMERCIAL COURSES

Aside from higher commercial schools and schools for commercial apprentices, various commercial courses arose during the years with varying purposes. Sponsored at first by private individuals or local associations, the government in 1891 issued regulations governing their activities. Particularly were the courses designed for women popular and well attended; these existed until 1920, when they were incorporated into the higher commercial schools.

In 1910 the evening commercial courses were also organized by the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction into two groups—beginners and advanced. They were designed to meet the needs of workers who desired to supplement their education. This remained in effect for ten years.

A new regulation was issued in 1920 according to which these commercial courses were offered either as courses with optional plans of instruction or as a one-year course for graduates of a secondary school.

Courses with Optional Plans of Instruction

The aim of these courses is to afford commercial employees or business men an opportunity to obtain further education in certain commercial fields. They are maintained by bodies receiv-

ing the permission of the Ministry and are under the direct supervision of the director of commercial schools. The course is restricted to ten months but upon permission shorter or longer courses may be held. Students (either sex) must have previously completed their fifteenth birthday and the elementary school, or the second grade of the middle or a secondary school, or the third grade of a school for commercial apprentices or must take an entrance examination. The program, adapted to occasional and local needs, is determined by the faculty and students select their own subjects. If needs require, a strictly determined course of subjects may be taught.

One-Year Commercial Courses for Graduates of a Secondary School

At present there are three such courses in the country. They aim to give graduates of a secondary school a commercial education in one year. Graduates of secondary schools or normal schools or those of equivalent training are admitted. The course, consisting of ten months, embraces commerce, commercial correspondence, bookkeeping and office practice, commercial arithmetic, arithmetic, economics, commercial law, commercial geography, merchandise, a foreign language, correspondence, and shorthand. Optional subjects are also offered. Supervision is exercised by the director of commercial instruction.

SCHOOLS OF SHORTHAND, PENMANSHIP, AND TYPEWRITING

Conducted under private auspices for a long time, these schools finally came under the regulation of the Ministry of Public Work and Instruction in 1920. Their activities were placed under the immediate supervision of the *National Shorthand Council*. Their aim is to provide interested individuals with a knowledge of shorthand, penmanship, and typewriting. The courses are determined by the Council and examinations are also conducted by it.

BODIES INTERESTED IN COMMERCIAL INSTRUCTION

Teachers of higher commercial schools in 1894 organized themselves into the *National Association of Commercial School Teachers*, which ever since has been interested in the intellectual, moral, and material life of commercial teachers and in questions

of commercial education. Its publication is the monthly *Commercial Instruction*.

The official advisory body of the Ministries of Public Worship and Instruction and of Commerce is the *National Council of Industrial and Commercial Instruction*, which has been discussed in a previous section. It may also be mentioned that commercial courses are maintained by cities, denominations, commercial organizations, and individuals.

VI. PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS OF ART

MUSIC SCHOOLS

The National Conservatory

The National Conservatory was founded by the *Choral Society of Budapest*. This society, in which the most able musicians and music lovers of Buda and Pest (for these were at that time two separate cities) worked for the cultivation of good music, opened a Music School in 1840. For the maintenance of the school a society was formed, but it received considerable aid from outsiders as well. Among the founders are the names of Franz Liszt and such foreigners as Anne La Grange, Henrik Vieuxtemps, and Sigismund Thalberg. In 1851 the school and the society amalgamated to form the Conservatory of Budapest.

The new Conservatory grew by leaps and bounds. Gabriel Mátray carefully developed the organization of the school, introducing a wind instrument department alongside of singing, piano, and violin and in 1859 establishing a department of elocution, which later became the foundation of the academy of dramatics. The concerts of the Conservatory very shortly became real musical events in the life of the capital.

Celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary in 1865, when Franz Liszt personally conducted several of his masterpieces, the Conservatory changed its name to its present form. In subsequent years the school continued to grow and to produce many of the most outstanding Hungarian musicians. Recently the Conservatory has been reorganized on the plan of the *Schola Cantorum* of Paris. Its aim is principally to produce musicians of a general and comprehensive musical culture. The conservatory at present has more than 500 students.

The Royal Hungarian Franz Liszt College of Music

The Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction maintains this institution for musically talented persons intending to prepare for musical careers; it was opened in 1875 with Franz Liszt as president and Francis Erkel as director. Following Liszt as presidents were Edmund Mihalovich and Eugene Hubay. The faculty consisted of such persons as Emil Ábrányi, Sr., Henrik Gobbi, John Koessler, David Popper, Colman Chovan, Árpád Szendy, and Ernest Dohnányi. The membership of its present faculty also embraces the most outstanding names of Hungarian musical life.

All branches of musical culture are included in the curriculum of the school. Seven main courses are offered in the form of practice, preparatory, academic, operatic, and solo work and the training of artists and music teachers. The courses vary in length, and students are admitted and classified according to their musical knowledge.

The institution has a magnificent building with a concert organ and a large auditorium with a capacity of 1,200 persons and a smaller auditorium, in which public concerts and lectures are held.

Private Schools of Music

In order to ensure a high standard of musical instruction by private schools, which play an important part in the musical life of the country, the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction has recently issued appropriate regulations. Accordingly, only those schools may receive permission to function which meet the required conditions relative to personnel and material equipment, ensuring the undisturbed moral development and sound theoretical and practical training of its students. It is also required that teachers hold accredited diplomas, and if they are foreign, they must obtain citizenship. Private schools of music are under the supervision and control of the Ministry.

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN ACADEMY OF DRAMATIC ART

This institution was first opened in 1865 under the name of the *Dramatic School* and was under the supervision of the *National Committee on Theatres*. In 1873 it was empowered to have its own independent directors and came under the juris-

diction of the Ministry. At first it taught both drama and opera, but the latter was transferred in 1893 to the College of Musical Arts.

The course, at first four years in length, has recently been reduced to three years. The institution has a building with satisfactory classrooms, stages, and a little theatre, the *Urania*, in which students give public performances from time to time. The subjects taught are oral exercises, Hungarian language, history of Hungarian dramatics, theory of acting, dramaturgy, history of culture, poetics, aesthetics, psychology, French, dancing, fencing, singing, and exercises in dramatics. Students are sometimes engaged by the National Theatre, for which special compensation is made. Admission is accorded young men of at least seventeen years of age and young women of at least sixteen years of age, who are of good moral standing, culture, theatrical appearance, and speaking ability, and have finished at least four grades of a secondary school. Generally, candidates have a certificate of maturity. Scholarships are provided for industrious and capable students of little means. Graduates of the school become members of the *National Association of Actors*. The institution has about 50 students annually.

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN COLLEGE OF FINE ARTS

This institution, under the direct jurisdiction of the Ministry, was founded in 1871. In 1896 the department of industrial arts was removed from the school and formed into a separate institution. The instruction also began to be crystallized in separate departments for the training of teachers of art. The institution at first did not presume to give a complete art education. Those who received an introductory art education here went abroad for further studies.

In 1882 steps were taken by the government for the complete training of artists and the famous painter Julius Benczur forthwith opened his school of painting; he was followed in 1897 by Charles Lotz in a similar capacity and by the sculptor Aloy Strobl, who started a school of sculpturing. The training of women artists was carried on by the painting school for women. These schools functioned entirely independent of the school founded in 1871 and came under common administration only in 1908.

These five different institutions, serving the same purpose, were united in 1921 under the name of the *Royal National College of Fine Arts*. It is thus desired to cultivate artistic culture as successfully as possible through free selection of teachers and the extension of courses and by having all candidates for artistic careers studying together. The significance of the position of drawing teacher is desired to be stressed by making examinations very stringent.

The broadening of Hungarian art culture is also the aim of the artist colonies scattered through the country, a few of them being wandering groups. Brought under a separate system, they purpose in part to acquaint students with Hungarian communities and in part to give them opportunities to make contacts with the public.

The College thus aims to give students with satisfactory preliminary training an education in painting, sculpturing, graphics, and allied subjects and to prepare teachers for the middle, secondary, and professional schools. Its special task is to direct and control art education in the secondary schools. It offers the following courses: (1) Artists—painting, sculpture, graphic arts; (2) Candidates for teaching positions in Arts—in this department courses vary according to the needs of middle, secondary, and normal schools; (3) Art Professors—a continuation course.

A practice school is maintained for those preparing to be teachers of arts. And for teachers who desire further education special art and pedagogical courses are offered. Graduates of the training department are qualified to teach in the middle schools, secondary schools, and normal schools. This systematized training department for art teachers is unique even today. Its splendid work even in an international way has frequently been proven at art exhibits.

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS

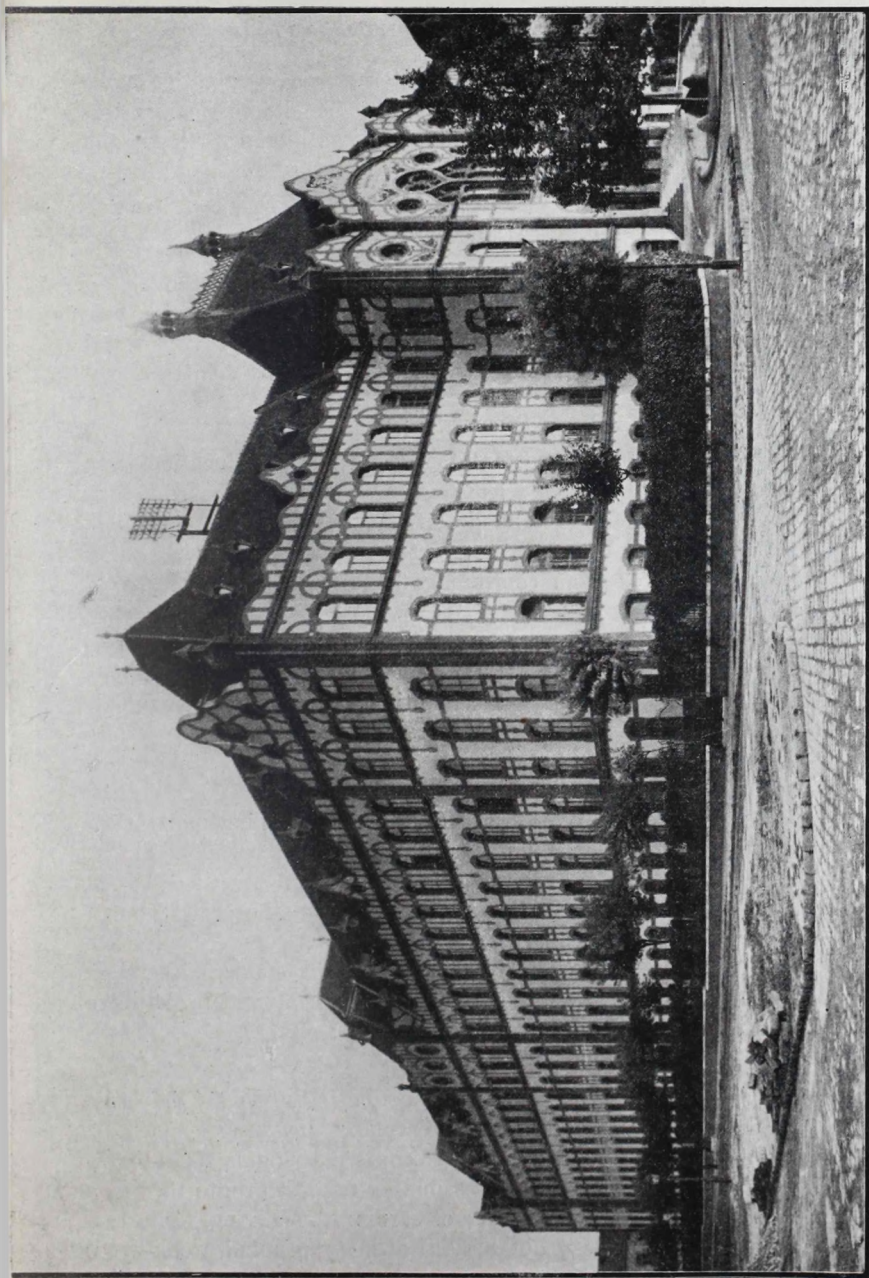
The idea of such an institution was first advanced by the first Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, Baron Joseph Eötvös, and realized by his successor Augustus Trefort. Such a school was designed to counteract the industrial products on the market and to provide an institution for developing the artistic energies dormant in the nation.

The life of the school began very humbly in 1880 as a workshop. To this was added a wood-engraving department in 1883, a department of decorative painting and copper-engraving in 1884, and a department of relief-work and decorative sculpturing. The school grew so rapidly that during the Millenary Celebration of 1896 it occupied a monumental building along with the National Hungarian Museum of Industrial Arts. Thus new possibilities for extension and development were found. By 1910 additional departments in enamel work, household furnishing, carpet-weaving, textiles, and artistic pottery were added. Since 1900 evening courses are also offered for those working in the practical field.

The National School of Industrial Arts ever since its founding has contributed largely to the direction of industrial life and the development of artistic taste among tradesmen. It has provided talent an opportunity to develop in the way of industrial arts. It has also identified itself with the great modern renaissance in industrial arts, which has recently made itself felt throughout Europe and, turning away from the lifeless imitation of historical styles, has brought a breath of fresh air into the choice of decorative elements and the appreciation of the practical and folk forms. The school performs a social mission. Not only does it revive the genuinely Hungarian artistic forms which are found in the museums, memorials, and folk life and in this way spread the appreciation of tradition and of the beautiful, but it also shows the way to earning capacity for hundreds of talented persons.

In its three-year lower and three-year upper courses the school offers to both men and women an education in seven branches of industrial arts (interior construction, decorative sculpturing, decorative pottery, smith and enamel work, decorative painting, graphics, and textile work). Candidates for admission upon examination must show that they have completed at least four grades of the middle school; anyone may join evening classes by reason of his occupation.

The National School of Industrial Arts has received recognition at the great world industrial arts exhibitions at Budapest, Paris, Torino, Milan, London, and St. Louis; and at the International exhibit at Monza in 1923 it received one of three gold medals and a diploma, the other gold medal winners being



ROYAL INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND IN BUDAPEST

French and Italian. Its highest international recognition came in 1912 at the exhibition at Dresden, when its curriculum was copied by schools in England, Germany, Holland, Sweden, and the United States.

VII. REMEDIAL EDUCATION

Remedial education in many countries is still not thought of in a unified way. Generally speaking, remedial education embraces the special instruction of children with all sorts of mental and physical defects. This instruction has a threefold task.

PREVENTION

One of the most important tasks of remedial education is to determine by the aid of scientific research the reasons why children become deformed and defective. If the source of trouble is known, it is easier to counteract it and to safeguard children from defects or from continuing to suffer from handicaps of birth.

To serve this end there was established the *Royal State Laboratory of Remedial Education and Psychology*, which conducts scientific researches and gathers statistical data. Since its founding this institution has been of great service both to science and to practice.

The cause of prevention has been advanced greatly also by the *Hungarian Society of Remedial Education*, which has undertaken the work of spreading popular and scientific propaganda. Its members visit villages, cities, and schools and try to enlighten people upon questions of hygienic living and the prevention of deficiencies. Every two years it also holds a general conference in Budapest, at which relevant matters come under discussion. Its monthly periodical and its series of educational books have been of invaluable aid.

RELIEF

The second task of remedial education is to educate defective children. The aim is to make deformities disappear if possible, to alleviate trouble, to render deformed individuals tolerable to parents and society, and, if possible, to take them into the great community of workers capable of earning their living. Into this category fall the deaf, dumb, hard of hearing, blind, weak-eyed,



STATE INSTITUTE FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB IN BUDAPEST

mentally deficient, morally abnormal, nervous, deformed, tubercular, stuttering, aenemic, and rickety children. To accomplish the above mentioned purpose institutions are founded, schools and observation homes are opened, and educational courses are held.

For deaf and dumb children there are eight schools (there were 15 before the dismemberment of the country) with accommodation for 1000 children. There is, moreover, an institution for practically training unschooled deaf and dumb children in manual work and a separate apprentice school. There is also a school at Budapest for children who are hard of hearing.

Two institutions serve the blind (three before the Treaty of Trianon). The care of the blind is the work of an organization sponsored by the state. Those leaving the schools are taken care of in four institutions where higher training is given. Steps have recently been taken to establish a school for those with poor eyesight.

There are two institutions for imbeciles. (Trianon took away two.) School children who are unable to keep in step with normal children are taught in separate schools at Budapest and in nine other cities.

An institution to care for epileptics was founded in 1902. There is also a school at Budapest for those of faulty speech and wherever there are normal schools or institutions of remedial education, courses are given for the benefit of those who are deficient in speech.

The institution for nervous children, with lower and secondary training, had to be closed during the economic crisis following the War, although it had performed a great mission.

The institution for deformed children is located at Budapest and has accommodations for 100 children. Instruction in various trades is given in it.

Moral defectives are placed in reformatories.

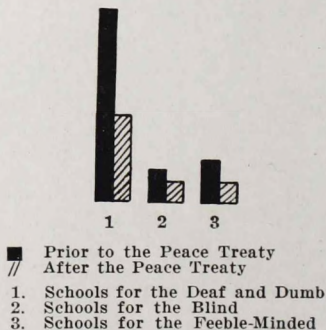
Schools and institutions engaged in remedial education are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Cults and Public Instruction, excepting moral deficient, who come within the sphere of the Ministry of Justice; supervision and control are exercised through a supervisor. The care of deficient is fully organized. The state maintains institutions and supports both social movements and relief work. It even takes care that those leaving the

institutions, if possible, are enabled, through some trade that has been taught them, to earn their living.

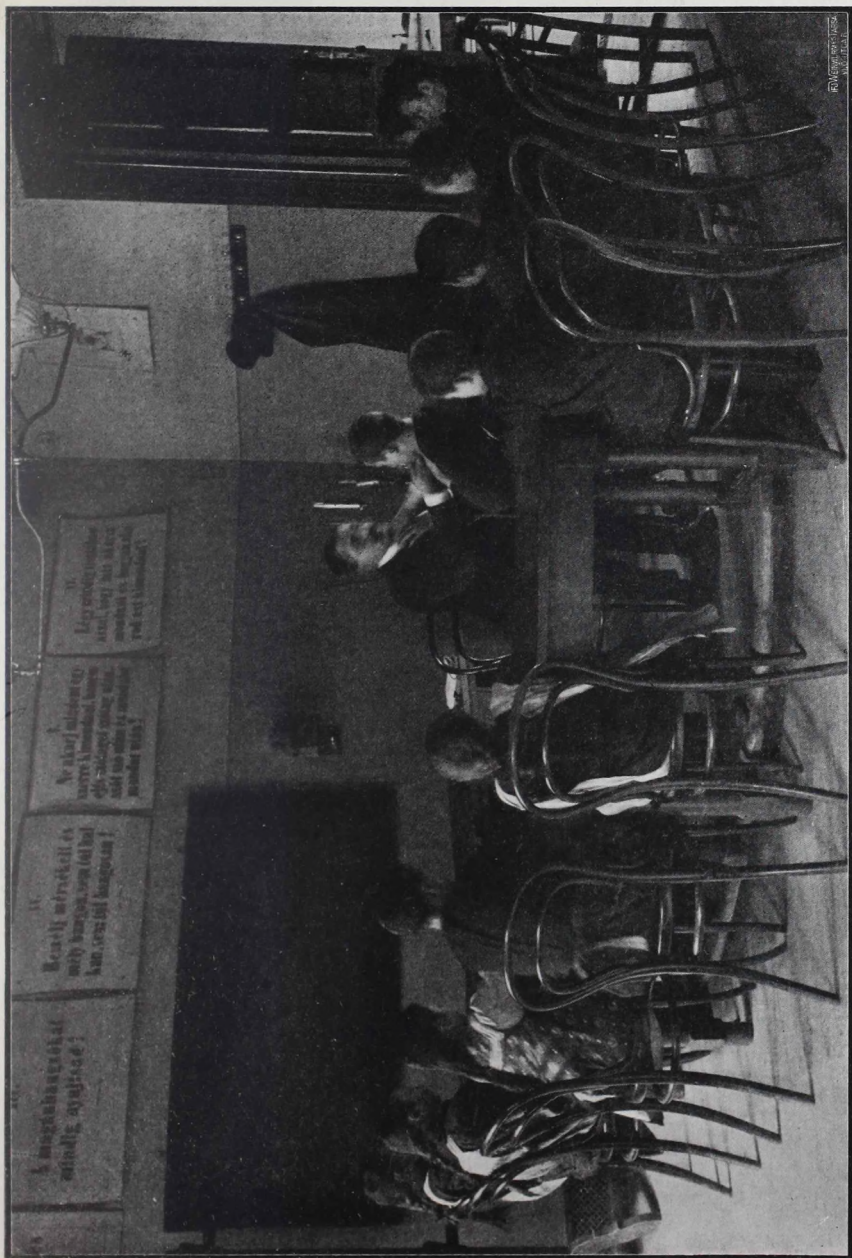
TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR REMEDIAL SCHOOLS

The school for the training of teachers aims to give a thorough acquaintance with the broad field of work. It is clear that the teachers must be thoroughly acquainted with the functions of the sound mind and all the senses in both their normal and their abnormal conditions. Knowledge of pedagogy is also a presupposition. The school strives to meet these requirements of the profession to which only those are admitted who have practical experience as teachers. The course extends over six semesters and gives instruction in all branches of remedial education. In this respect it is unique throughout the world, for other countries are only at present awakening to the necessity of unifying this field of instruction, while it has been going on in Hungary since 1898.

DECREASE IN THE NUMBER OF REMEDIAL SCHOOLS AS
A CONSEQUENCE OF THE TRIANON PEACE TREATY



The subjects taught are anatomy, physiology, remedial education, anatomy and physiology of the sense and speech organs, remedial gymnastics, legal status of young defectives, the human mind, Hungarian grammar, visitations to institutions for mental defectives, deaf, dumb and blind, explanatory drawing, psychology and education of the deaf and dumb, psychology and education of the blind, psychology and education of moral defectives, methods of instructing the deaf and dumb, methods of instructing the blind, methods of instructing mental defectives, phonetics,



STATE INSTITUTE FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB IN BUDAPEST—COURSE FOR CHILDREN WITH SPEECH DEFECTS

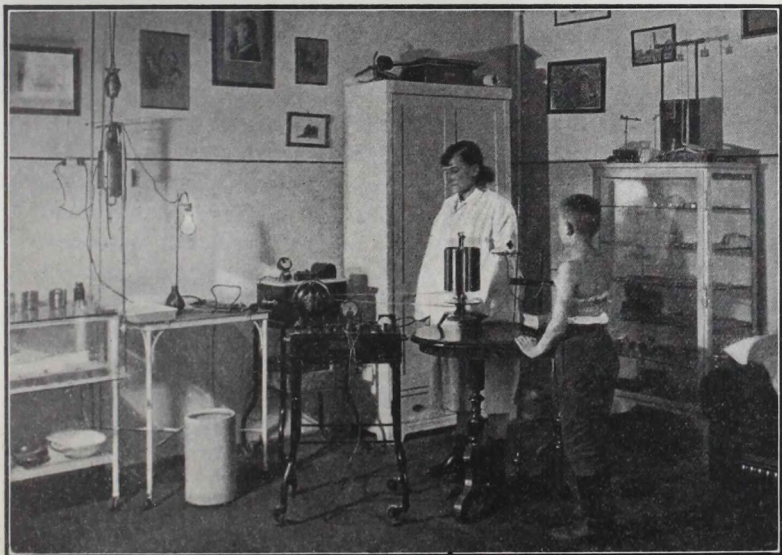
history of the education of the blind, deaf, dumb, and mental defectives, methods of studying physical and mental deficiencies, philosophy, and practical work in the institutions for deaf and dumb, blind, and mental defectives.



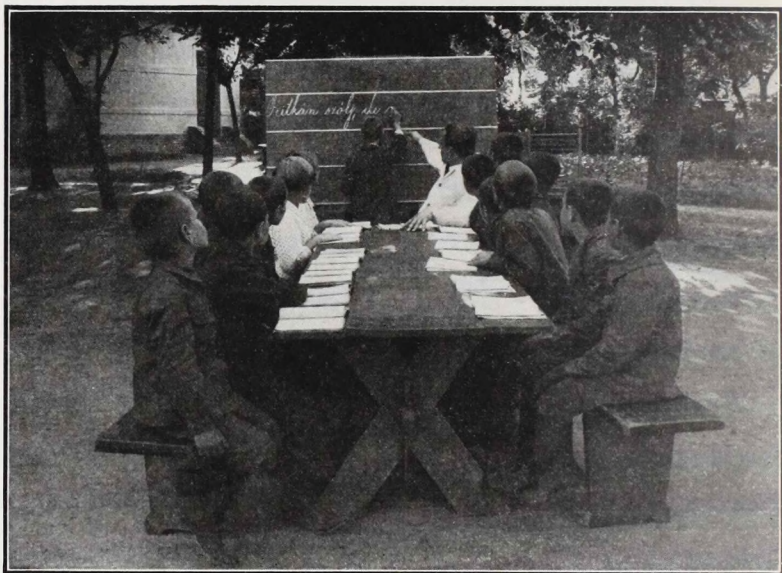
INSTITUTE FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB—GIRLS WORKING AT ELECTRIC SEWING MACHINES



INSTRUCTION IN THE BUDAPEST STATE INSTITUTE FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB



STIMULATION OF THE ACTION OF THE LUNGS IN THE BUDAPEST INSTITUTE FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB



OPEN-AIR INSTRUCTION IN THE INSTITUTE FOR CORRECTIVE PEDAGOGY IN GYULA

PART FIVE

TEACHER TRAINING

I. TRAINING OF KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS

When the Society for the Propagation of Kindergartens was founded in 1836, the necessity of having training schools immediately presented itself. The president of the society, Count Leo Festetics, donated his house for the purpose and the school was opened the following year with a one-year course. Only those were matriculated who during a probation period of a month showed special aptitude for the work. The students were exclusively men; the first women in the school are not found until in 1858.

In 1869 a training school for women kindergarten teachers was opened at Budapest, which was forthwith followed by another at Kolozsvár. In 1874 one of the schools extended its course to two years, and its example was followed by the others. Other schools were subsequently established, but their administration and curricula changed with every new director. This condition was stabilized by the act of 1891.

Students admitted to these schools are required to complete the four grades of some secondary school and to be of sound health and good musical ability. Applicants under fourteen years of age are not admitted.

These subjects are taught: religion and ethics, theory and practice of kindergarten work, hygiene, Hungarian language and literature, history, geography, natural sciences, mathematics, household arts, singing, music, drawing, needlework, and physical training.

Nurses for day nurseries are given a practical course of six months in which methods of dealing with children, practice child welfare, care of child's body, singing and business management of Day Nurseries are taught. Anyone who is eighteen to

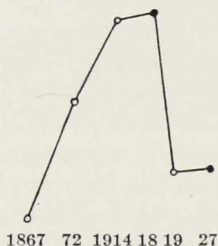
forty years of age and of good health and character may apply for admission.

II. TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

DEVELOPMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

The beginnings of the training of teachers in Hungary reach back to the eighteenth century, but the first independent normal schools were founded in greater numbers only somewhat later. In 1867 the country had 26 such schools. An act passed in 1868 gave all legal bodies that maintained elementary schools the additional right to maintain normal schools for the training of

NUMBER OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTES,
1867-1927

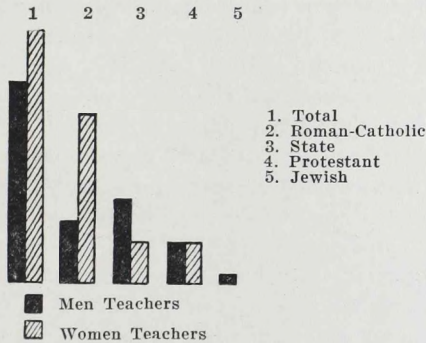


their teachers. In consequence by 1871 there were 60 normal schools in operation. This number constantly grew and in 1914 reached the number of 84. While several new schools were established during the war also, nevertheless only 43 institutions for the training of teachers were left following the Treaty of Trianon.

Normal schools had scarcely begun their work in 1868, when it became apparent that a three-year course afforded but a very inadequate education and that the required two years of practice following the theoretical course was exceedingly expensive. For these reasons after an experience of ten years the state raised the length of the course to four years and attached the practice work to the regular course, requiring the qualifying examinations immediately following the four-year course. During the next twenty years the curriculum became crystallized and

a reform of the curriculum was started. This was completed in 1911 when new regulations were issued. The progress of pedagogy, the expansion of the sphere of popular education, and the crowding of the curriculum made it increasingly imperative to increase again the length of the course. This was done in 1923 when it was raised to five years.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTES



Denominational normal schools adapted themselves formerly with great difficulty to the standard of the state schools, but at present they have identified themselves thoroughly with the state institutions and it may be said that normal school education is fairly harmonious throughout the country.

TASK OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL

The task of the normal school is to prepare teachers for the elementary schools, but the training given in the normal school also lays the basis for the pursuance of further study in the following courses:

1. Course for teachers of middle schools, which may be followed by a two-year course in preparation for teaching in normal schools.

2. A three-year course in preparation for teachers of physical training.

3. A four-year course at the College of Fine Arts for teachers of drawing.

4. A three-year course in preparation for teachers of remedial education.
5. A two-year course in preparation for the teaching of agriculture.

CURRICULUM

In general the following subjects are taught in normal schools: religion and ethics, physiology and biology, psychology and logic, theory of education, pedagogy, history of education, school organization, practice teaching, Hungarian language and literature, German, history, constitution, geography, mathematics, natural sciences and chemistry, physics, hygiene, economics, husbandry, drawing, penmanship, music, singing, handicrafts, and physical culture. In some institutions two minority languages, two musical instruments, and church music are taught in addition as elective subjects. The backbone of instruction is education; students study, not only theoretical methods but also practical ways of teaching, conducting classes under supervision, and discussing experiences in groups. Deviating from the custom of most countries, the teacher of the practice school, the teacher of pedagogy, and the teachers of the respective subjects participate jointly in guiding and directing candidates. Teachers are also trained to conduct educational activities outside of the school in summer courses especially designed to meet the need of Adult Education.

QUALIFYING OF TEACHERS

Upon the completion of the course students are examined by the faculty as a whole with the state director acting as head of the examining committee. The examination consists of three parts: (a) Written work in the pedagogical sciences, Hungarian language and literature, and mathematics; (b) oral examination in religion and ethics, psychology, history, school organization, Hungarian language, literature, history of education, geography, and constitution; (c) practice teaching.

Possession of the diploma entitles teachers to take examinations for the position of church music leaders and church music teachers in the schools of national minorities. Diplomas obtained abroad are honoured upon the basis of an examination.

TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

The work of instruction and training is done by the faculty of the school with a director at its head, who handles educational or disciplinary matters in co-operation with the members of the faculty. Teachers are appointed by the Ministry; about their training see page 229.



STATE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTE IN BUDAPEST, FIRST DISTRICT

The training of teachers for denominational normal schools is not as well organized, and administration, supervision, and control are not uniform. The administration of denominational normal schools is exclusively within the jurisdiction of the denominational authorities, and supervision is exercised by the government through its director of normal schools.

III. TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR MIDDLE SCHOOLS

ORGANIZATION

The school for training teachers for middle schools in its first form began its work in 1873. Its course covers four years, and

students are admitted in proportion to the needs of middle schools on the basis of a certificate of maturity from a secondary school or a diploma from a normal school for elementary teachers. This institution received a new home in 1928 in Szeged, where it was brought into a closer connection with the university.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum is divided into four major and three minor groups. Students receiving state aid are required to study in a minor group in addition to the major one.

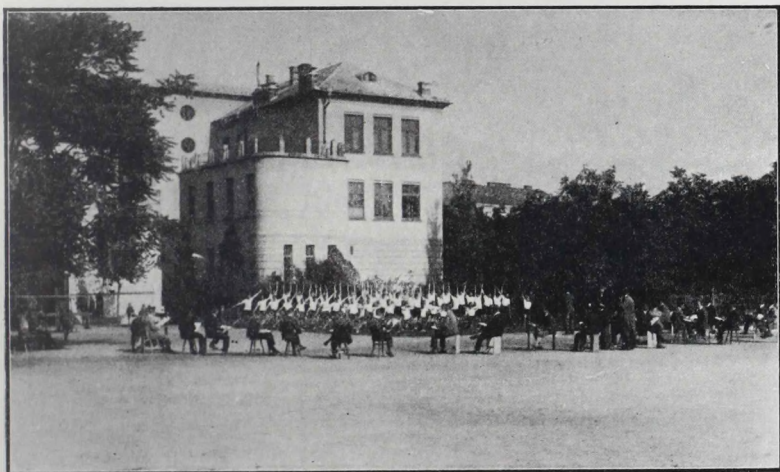


STATE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTE IN BUDAPEST, FIRST DISTRICT—BIOLOGY LABORATORY WORK

The *Hungarian language and history group* includes psychology, logic, ethics, theory of education, philosophy, history of education, general philology, introduction to Hungarian philology, Hungarian philology, seminar in Hungarian philology, stylistics, rhetorics, aesthetics, prosody and poetics, history of Hungarian literature, history of Hungarian literature seminar, universal history, Hungarian history, Hungarian constitution and its history, introduction to sciences allied to history, history seminar,

history of art, ethnography, economics, German, Latin, physical training, and practice teaching.

The *Hungarian and German language group* includes psychology and logic, ethics, education, philosophy and history of education, general philology and introduction to Hungarian philology, Hungarian philology, Hungarian philology seminar, stylistics, rhetorics, aesthetics, prosody and poetics, Hungarian literature, Hungarian literature seminar, historical German language, history of German literature, German language and litera-



STATE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTE IN BUDAPEST, FIRST DISTRICT—PHYSICAL EXERCISES AND SKETCHING IN THE SCHOOL GROUNDS

ture seminar, ethnography, economics, Latin, physical culture, and practice teaching.

The *geography, natural history, and chemistry group* includes psychology, logic, ethics, education, philosophy and history of education, general geography, European geography, Hungarian geography, geographical exercises, ethnography, economics, general zoology, laboratory work in zoology, zoology, agriculture with practice work, general botany, laboratory work in botany, botany, agriculture, general and inorganic chemistry, organic chemistry, laboratory, mineralogy, crystallography, laboratory, geology and paleontology, chemical technology, physiology and

hygiene, history of Hungarian intellectual life, German, drawing, physical training, and practice teaching.

The *mathematics, physics, and chemistry group* includes psychology, logic, ethics, education, philosophy and history of education, algebra, geometry, mathematics, mathematical exercises, commercial arithmetic, bookkeeping, physics, laboratory work in physics, general and inorganic chemistry, organic chemistry,



STATE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTE IN BUDAPEST, FIRST DISTRICT—PRACTICE SCHOOL

laboratory work in chemistry, mineralogy and crystallography, physiology and hygiene, economics, history of Hungarian intellectual life, German language, physical training, and practice teaching.

The *minor group in music* includes musical theory and history of music, theory and practice of singing, piano, and organ.

The *minor physical training group* includes anatomy and theory and practice of physical culture.

The *minor handicrafts group* includes the theory and practice of paper work, wood work, and clay work.

THE PRACTICE SCHOOL

For the practical training of its candidates, the school has established a four-grade practice middle school for boys and girls, which serves as a model school and a practising field for students.

QUALIFYING OF TEACHERS

The qualifying examination consists of two parts—the preliminary examination, which may be taken after successful completion of the first two years, and the final examination, to which those who have successfully completed the preliminary examination and the last year of studies are eligible. A special committee exists for the examination of candidates.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS

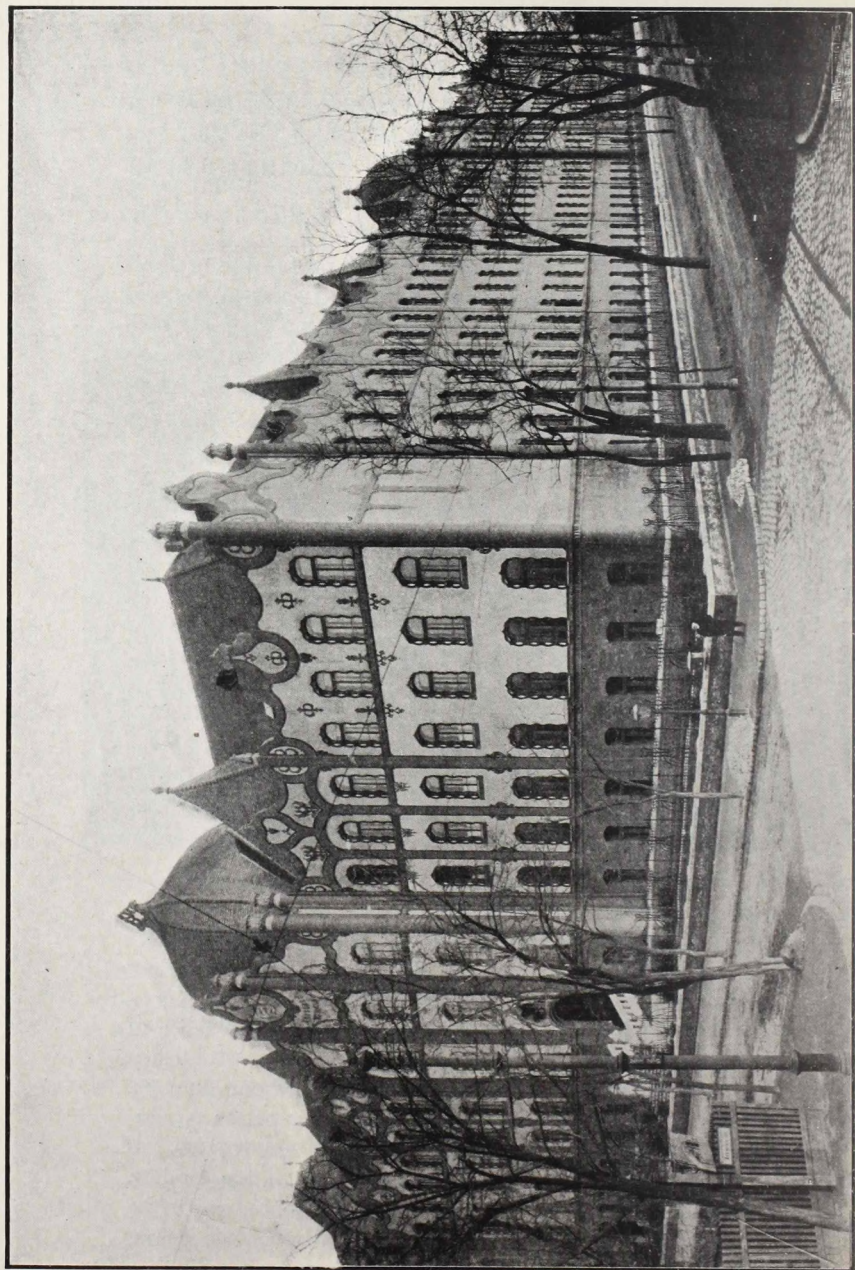
In connection with the training school of teachers for middle schools is the so-called *Apponyi College*, entrusted with directing the training of teachers for normal schools. Candidates are selected in limited number by the Ministry from graduates of the training school for teachers of middle schools. The members of the college pursue studies in their special field for two years, partly at the university in Szeged and partly at the college. Their seminar and laboratory work is done in the training school and their practice teaching in one of the normal schools of the city.

The training of teachers of music and drawing is similar, except that their specialized work is done at the College of Fine Arts or the National Conservatory of Music.

IV. TRAINING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

THE TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

In connection with the reorganization of the University of Nagyszombat in 1773, a *collegium repetentium* was established in each faculty for the preparation of secondary school teachers. The *Ratio* of 1777, profiting from four years of experience, contained detailed regulations in this matter. It provided for fellowships in each faculty. These take the place of the modern assistantships. Students of the humanities were supposed to be teachers in Gymnasiums. The course extended over two years,



ELIZABETH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS IN BUDAPEST

and students were forbidden to engage in other occupations while they were attending.

Systematic provision for the training of secondary school teachers was first made by Baron Joseph Eötvös, who in 1870 established a training institute for teachers of the Gymnasiums in connection with the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Budapest and another for Real school teachers at the Joseph Technical University. The two were united three years later and teacher training was reorganized. Candidates were required to pursue studies in their special field at the university and also to attend professional lectures, while at the same time they were carrying on practice teaching at the model school. This system, not altogether satisfactory, was greatly improved by the regulation of 1899. This divided the task of teacher training between the university and a separate training department. The theoretical part of the training was supplied in part by the university courses and in part by special lectures in the training department and the practical training was given in the practice Gymnasium or some other secondary school. Members of the department were required to study the compulsory subjects and to participate in the practical work in their field.

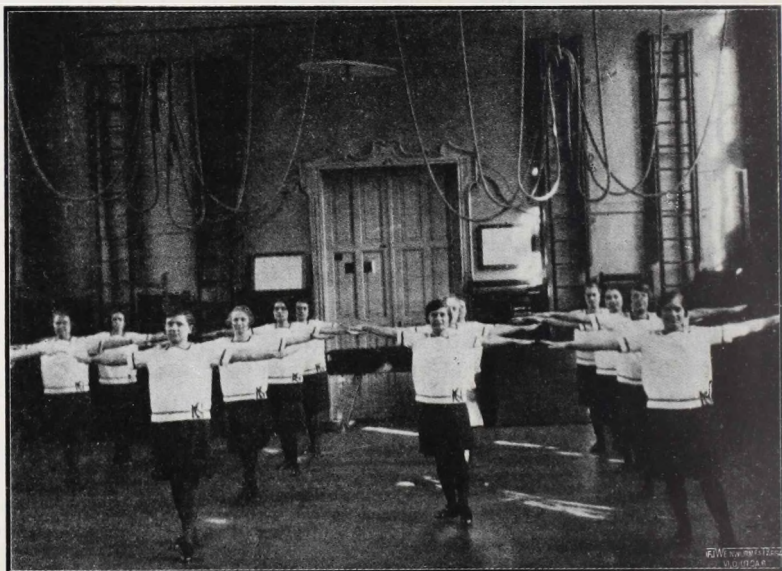
This plan proved satisfactory except that it was not made compulsory; for it was still possible for anyone who completed the university to become a teacher in secondary schools without being professionally prepared for this calling. This condition was improved in 1924 by restricting teaching positions in secondary schools only to those who were enrolled during their university studies in the training department for four years. The law also requires that a candidate, upon completion of his university studies, engages himself in practice teaching at some secondary school for a period of at least one year.

After the style of the French *École Normale Supérieure* the Eötvös College was founded in 1895 to take care of education of poor students who desired to become secondary school teachers. The College has its separate building with full accommodations for its students (100). Besides its director, it employs about twelve professors for regular subjects and several for teaching foreign languages. Its library contains 35,000 volumes.

Similar institutions are planned to be established in connection with the universities at Debrecen, Pécs, and Szeged.

EXAMINATIONS

Regulations concerning examinations are essentially those that were adopted in 1882. According to these, three examinations are to be taken: (1) preliminary examination, after completion of two years in two majors and in Hungarian language and literature; (2) professional examination taken upon the completion of the four-year course and confined to a thesis, and written and oral examination in the two major subjects; (3) pedagogical ex-



TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS—PHYSICAL EXERCISES

amination taken in written and oral form after one year of experience in teaching and limited to the field of philosophy and pedagogy. A later regulation (1888) discontinued the differentiation of major and minor subjects and described the requirements with reference to content in detail.

From every candidate for examinations a knowledge of at least one of the subject-groups listed below is required in order to be qualified to teach in a secondary school. These subject-groups are: Hungarian and German languages and literatures,

Hungarian and French languages and literatures, Hungarian and English languages and literatures, Hungarian and Latin languages and literatures, Greek and Latin languages and literatures, Latin and German languages and literatures, Latin and English languages and literatures, Latin and Italian languages and literatures, German and French languages and literatures, German and Italian languages and literatures, French and Latin languages and literatures, English and French languages and lit-



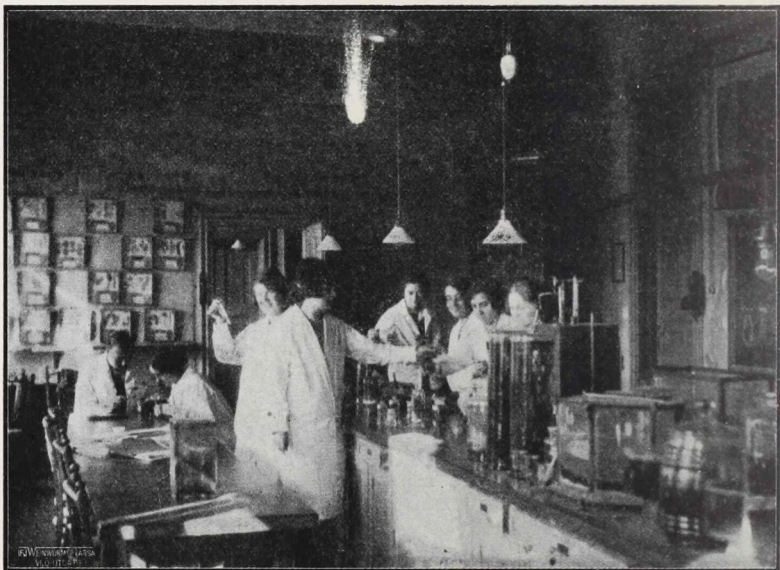
TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS—HOUSEHOLD ARTS

eratures, Italian and French languages and literatures, History and Latin languages and literatures, history and geography, geography and natural sciences, natural sciences and chemistry, mathematics and physics, physics and chemistry, and mathematics and descriptive geometry.

Inasmuch as there are secondary schools which do not use Hungarian as the language of instruction, any foreign language of instruction and its literature may be substituted for Hungarian in the above groups; in fact, such a language may form a group with Hungarian. However, if a teacher desires to teach with such

a qualification in a school where the foreign language is not being taught, he must also obtain qualifications in a third subject.

Every candidate is permitted to take examinations in a third subject, which must be a related subject or philosophy or history of art.



TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS—ZOOLOGICAL
LABORATORY

V. TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR HIGHER COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

The task of training teachers for higher commercial schools belong to a separate institution which functions in the commercial department of the University Faculty of Economic Sciences.

This institution functioned before the establishment of the Faculty of Economic Sciences as an independent institution, having been founded in 1898. Prior to that time commercial teachers were trained in the Faculty of Philosophy at the Uni-

versity or at the Technical University and received their qualification from a national examining committee. The solution of 1898 was instituted only temporarily as a transitional step, inasmuch as a training school from the beginning had been planned in connection with a higher commercial school. Since this proposed commercial school was realized only in the Faculty of Economic Sciences, the transitional plan was in existence for a



TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS—WORK AT THE MICROSCOPE

quarter of a century, being accommodated during that time either by the Commercial Academy of Budapest or the Peter Pàzmány University and providing lectures by professors of the university and the commercial academy. With the foundation of the Faculty of Economic Sciences, the training school became an organic part of it. The rich program of the commercial department made it possible to set the training of teachers upon a broader basis.

The training school prepares candidates in the following special fields: Group A—bookkeeping, commercial correspondence, legal

and economic studies. Group B—commercial and political arithmetic and physics. Group C—chemistry, merchandise, and geography. Supplementary training is offered in the German, French, English, and Italian commercial languages and correspondence and in the history of economics. The courses and lectures of the Faculty of Economics and the Faculty of Philosophy are utilized whenever they suit the needs of the training. The prac-



TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS—PHYSICS
LABORATORY

tice work is carried on in a commercial school in Budapest. The curriculum is supervised by a council made up of twelve members.

The students of the training department are regular students of the Faculty of Economic Sciences; they may enrol in the Faculty of Philosophy as special students. It is here that they study Hungarian language and literature, history of culture, philosophy, education, higher mathematics, physics, organic and inorganic chemistry, and geography; and in the Faculty of Economic Sciences they attend lectures on law, commerce, economics, busi-

ness, merchandise, economic geography, and the history of economics. The training course extends over a period of eight semesters.

Candidates are required to take a preliminary examination after the first four semesters, a professional examination at the end of the eighth semester, and a pedagogical examination fol-



TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS—BOTANY
LABORATORY

lowing a year of practical work. A special committee conducts the examinations.

The examinations are written and oral. The written preliminary examination is in some theme of Hungarian literature, the written professional examination is in the student's major study, and the written pedagogical examination is in philosophy or education. The oral preliminary and professional examinations embrace the subjects studied as well as Hungarian language and literature. Every candidate must show reasonable proficiency in the German, French, English, or Italian language. The subjects of the oral pedagogical examination are philosophy and pedagogy.

Students taking supplementary courses must prepare a thesis besides taking written and oral examinations.

The training department is supplemented by a dormitory of which thirty students of high scholarship are members during the entire course of eight semesters and receive state aid, which covers all expenses.

PART SIX

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Ever since Hungarians a thousand years ago established a new country around the Danube and the Tisza and settled down, they continually stood in arms for the defence of their country and European culture. The Hungarian child a thousand years ago grew up on war games. Until the end of the seventeenth century when the Turks were completely routed out of the country, war life flourished.

In the middle of the eighteenth century John Amos Comenius, who was at that time teaching in the Reformed school at Sáros-patak, began to proclaim with his keen mind that there should be games in school and that the body was to be disciplined by games in order that it might be a worthy shelter of the soul. A new slogan—games—took the place of the old—war. People became conscious of sport.

The first sport regulations are found among the customs and laws regarding hunting. In an increasing measure the notion of fair play is introduced into duelling and the beginnings of sport literature are to be traced to the writing of Ladislaus Ungarus in the fourteenth century concerning hawking.

In the eighteenth century when Locke, Rousseau, and Basedow were urging the necessity of a reform in physical education, Maria Theresa, who made education a duty of the state, dealt lengthily in her *Ratio Educationis* with the problem of physical education and especially with the hygienic care of school children. It mentions play in the open, the need of playgrounds, and recreation and makes regulations regarding the types of games to be played. Unfortunately, the physical training program of the *Ratio* was not realized.

The committee on education in the Parliament of 1825 strug-

gled valiantly to have physical training introduced into the educational system but its proposals were not accepted. One of its outstanding proposals was to provide for the specialized training of those who would engage in physical education of the youth in the schools. This idea materialized only a hundred years later (1925) when the College of Physical Education was established.

During the nineteenth century physical education ran the same course in Hungary as elsewhere. The Hungarian sport movement took over foreign patterns and especially in the eighties English sport struck a deeper root in Hungary. Sport life developed rapidly. City folk for some time had been devoted to shooting as a social sport, since it long ago had lost its original purpose of defending the city. In the early part of the last century there appeared swimming pools, wrestling clubs, physical training societies, and ice-skating became a popular sport. The German physical training system found its way into Hungary in 1839, when the first physical training institution was founded, which within 13 years trained 54 gymnasium instructors and instructed 1,876 children.

The great transformation of Hungarian sport life came instinctively and, as it were, of itself. Recognition for it belongs to three men—Count Maurice Sándor, Baron Nicholas Wesse-lényi, and Count Stephen Széchenyi, who had travelled extensively in England.

In 1863 the movement was started to establish a physical training society, which was immediately followed by another movement to erect the *National Gymnasium*. Hungarian sport life also made an epoch-making stride in 1875 by the foundation of the *Hungarian Athletic Club*.

Compulsory physical education was introduced into the schools in the eighties and thus youth was given a chance not only to obtain systematic physical training but also to develop its athletic inclinations. From this time on a very lively sport life came into being and new sports were introduced. Activities of sport clubs in national and international contests served more and more to catch the attention of the public and to direct it to sports so that, since the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century, Hungary has appeared at the Olympic games in competition with other countries.

LAWS CONCERNING PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The *National Physical Education Board* was founded in 1913 and at the same time a law was passed stipulating that a certain per cent of bets at horse races should go through the *National Physical Education Fund* for purposes of physical education. This ensures a considerable income and serves to supplement the sum obtained from the national budget.

As in other countries, the matter of supporting athletics in a systematic way came to the fore only after the World War. The Act of 1921 makes physical education compulsory for all primary and secondary schools and possible for university students; it compels the state to organize physical education in a way that all male citizens should receive physical training up to the age of twenty-one; and it ensures support for all social organizations seriously engaged in physical education if their work is worth while from the national point of view. For the training of instructors it decrees the establishment of the *National College of Physical Education* and urges the creation of more playgrounds, athletic fields, baths, swimming pools, and so on. It also makes stipulations for a *National Stadium* to be used for national and international sport contests. With this law Hungary accomplished a piece of pioneer work, for in the enactment of a physical education law into her *Corpus Juris* she preceded every one of the civilized nations.

It has very truly been stated by Count Klebelsberg that as a result of the Treaty of Trianon the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction has in reality become the Ministry of Defence of disarmed Hungary. The maintenance of physical education, therefore, is regarded as an absolutely necessary task of the State in order that the nation may not be left behind others in this important respect. The aim of the State has met with such enthusiastic understanding and support throughout the country that today Hungary can proudly point to physical training institutions throughout her realm which have achieved praiseworthy results.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS

The program of physical education among the youth falls into two classifications, namely, physical education within the school and outside the school.

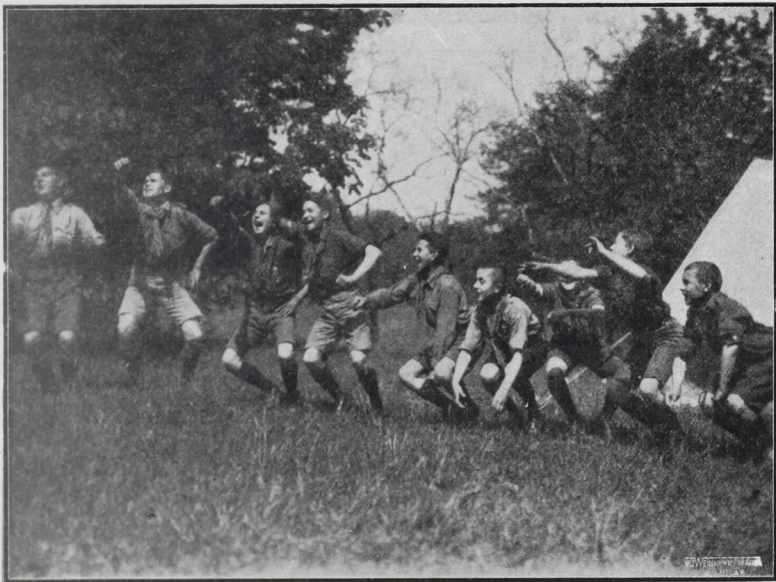
Physical training is compulsory in all types of schools in the country for both boys and girls, and exemption can be obtained only upon the advice of a physician. In general, three periods are devoted to it weekly. Wherever possible, classes are conducted in the open unless the weather forbids. To the program of compulsory physical education belong also the two-hour play session in the afternoon in which all students must participate.

In every secondary school sport clubs have been formed to cultivate the various sports. In these clubs students engage in the various athletic sports of their own choice under the guidance of the teacher. These sport clubs have been organized into the *National Association of Secondary Schools Sport Clubs*, which guides and controls their activity. The country is divided into six districts which in turn are divided into smaller groups. They hold competitions of all sorts among themselves both during the school year and at its close, which elicit the highest interest and support of the communities and authorities. Thus far 423 sport clubs have been formed with a total membership of about 128,000. It is from the graduates of secondary schools that most of the athletes of the country are derived and, since the leaders and organizers of Hungarian athletic life will obviously come from them also, the *National Association of Sport Clubs* is fulfilling a great mission from the point of view not only of sport and physical education but also of hygiene and social significance. Of particular importance are its contests and games conducted at the various schools during the commencement season, when all sorts of exhibitions of a cultural nature are coupled with the event which becomes a holiday for communities, and people from far and wide gather together to witness the athletic events and the exhibitions.

The universities and colleges have also made physical education compulsory and have already elaborated the pertinent regulations. As a result of this action great progress is expected in sports within the coming years. The sport clubs of the universities, many of which can boast of a long past and excellent records, as well as the association which binds them together, are enthusiastically supported in all their endeavours. Many of them possess their own athletic fields and club houses, and are fully equipped for their purposes. At present a huge gymnasium with a swimming pool at the University of Budapest is being

contemplated for the use of university and student secondary pupils.

University sport is on a high plane. As proof of this stands the fact that in 1927 at the Olympiad at Rome Hungarian students carried off 70 prizes.



WAR WHOOPS IN A BOY SCOUT CAMP

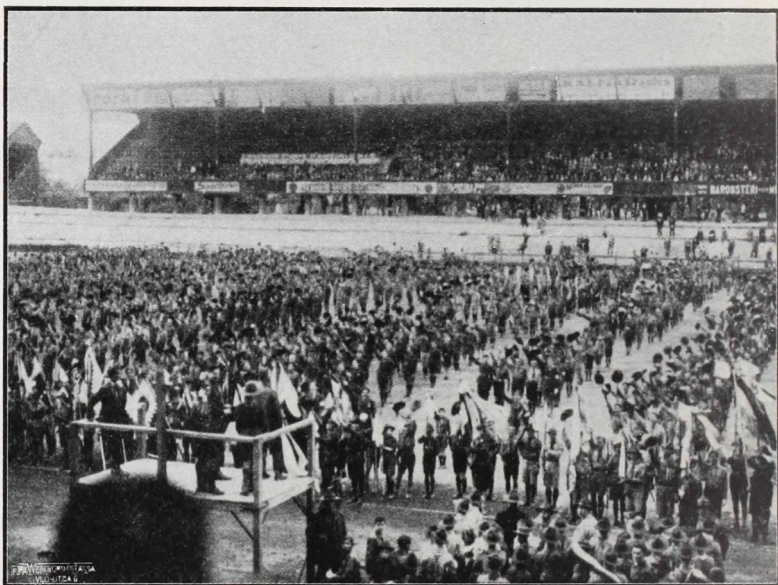
LEVENTE ORGANIZATIONS

The Act of 1921 extended compulsory physical education over the entire country and provided especially for the careful organization of young people who completed school. This act decrees that every male citizen under 21 years of age must take part in physical education.

Thus there have been formed the so-called *levente* (modern form of chivalry) societies. At present there are about 3,500 such societies, in which more than 700 instructors engage in physical education. It is this institution that has popularized athletics in Hungary, actually democratizing it, since participation in them was made possible for even the poorest boy, and it

carried the idea of physical education into the smallest village. In general they engage in sports that are inexpensive and achieve results mainly through the aid of the teachers. In 1926 about 2,500 various athletic contests were held.

These societies are important chiefly from the point of view of education outside of the school walls. They aid in the building up of a sound national spirit and consciousness. The charge



BOY SCOUT TROOP MEETING

that they serve military purposes is false and is refuted by the fact that membership ceases at the age of 21 when it would be possible to utilize the young men in that way.

Despite the meagre resources at their disposal these *levente* societies show encouraging progress. Organizations, even in the smallest villages, strive to cope with their task in an efficient way. Valuable results are accomplished by the *Levente Homes* scattered throughout the country for more intensive training. With their libraries, movie and radio lectures, recreational and cultural program, musicales, and dances these homes soon became significant factors in popular education in spite of the fact that

not even one-third of the societies own their building. Boys between the ages of twenty and twenty-one also receive training in fire fighting and in this way are serving a valuable social mission.

HUNGARIAN BOY SCOUTS

In the training of boys, invaluable service is done by the Boy Scout organization, which is purely a social organization and



MOVING PICTURES AT A BOY SCOUT CAMP

based entirely upon voluntary membership. There is no example of another foreign institution which had so quickly struck root in the national soil of Hungary as did Scouting. The explanation of this is found in the fact that the fundamental principles of the organization are marks of real Hungarian nature and character. Although Scouting has come from abroad, the *Hungarian Boy Scout Association* has made it one of the most truly Hungarian institutions among the youth. This organization in 1927 numbered thirty-five thousand boys among its members.

Scout life is active throughout the year, yet it is particularly so during the summer vacation. At this time extended camping trips are taken and the occasion is used to make love of nature

and country a living reality. During every summer Scouts will also travel abroad. Thus recently they participated in campings of England, Poland, Sweden, and Austria and at the Great International Jamboree of 1924 in Denmark, where the United States and England took first and second places, the Hungarian group carried off third place, wresting the palm from thirty other



FIRST AID IN A BOY SCOUT CAMP

nations. Noteworthy also is another recognition which came to them at the water contests of 1927 in Denmark when they came in first and excelled among the youth of countries more fortunate because of having wide seashores.

As a result of the fine record of the Association, the government and the public have co-operated to erect headquarters for it at Budapest.

Eight hundred Hungarian Boy Scouts took part in the world jamboree in England (1929).

There is also a widely expanded organization of Girl Guides in Hungary.

HUNGARIAN JUNIOR RED CROSS

Although the program of the Junior Red Cross reaches out into a broader field and is not limited to physical education, nevertheless we discuss it here because its activities revolve in a large measure around the problem of health and the training of the body. The Hungarian Junior Red Cross was formed in the spring of 1921, with ten groups, as a school of mental and physical



COOKING IN A BOY SCOUT CAMP

health. The program of work includes hygiene, hand skill, art education, humane activities, and international correspondence. Each group is engaged in practical work, which is the source of its income. Their articles are sold during the Christmas and Easter sales, a good portion of them reaching markets abroad. Visitors from the United States have often stated that the exhibitions of the Hungarian Junior Red Cross at Washington, London, Paris, and elsewhere contain the largest amount and finest type of articles.

The groups use their income for their own maintenance, new material, health equipments, and charity. In secret and without

waiting to be thanked they aid the poor in school and in society. Each group has its own poor student, whom it helps to educate. They fight untiringly against poverty and are unceasing in dispensing aid in the form of rent, foodstuff, clothing, tuition, etc. They are the main supporters of their schools, for they not only keep them clean but also equip them with libraries, equipments of visualization, and so forth.

International correspondence has an individual and a national purpose. It broadens the perspective of the youth, gains friends for the Hungarian nation, which is without a brother, and helps to disburse many of the erroneous impressions which are extant about Hungary. In a letter of a little American girl we read: "Yesterday we celebrated the birthday of Abraham Lincoln. He liberated all the citizens of America. I thought of your country. If only a similar great man would arise in your country to end your misery!"

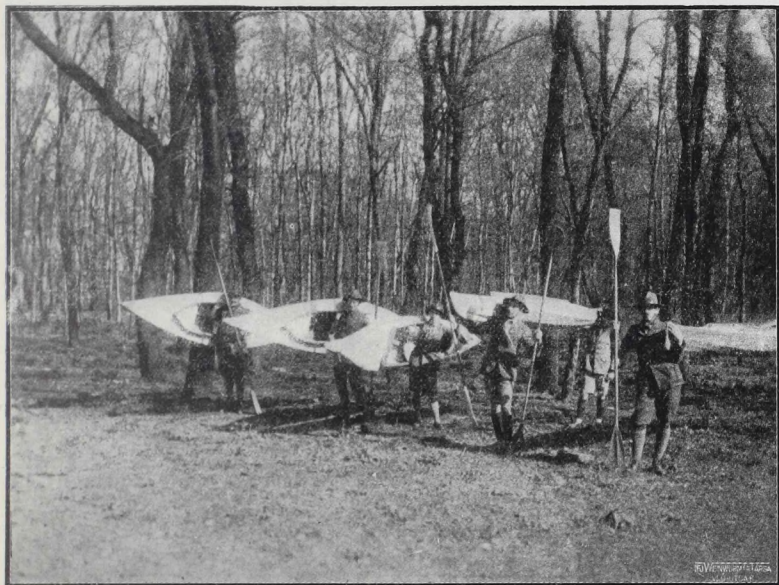
In the nineteenth century the world imagined Hungary to be a vast wasteland. The Junior Red Cross members with their letters and albums desire to point to Hungary and to her values in order to prove the worth and vitality of the country, now condemned to die. It desires to influence the bar of the future to bring a just and rectifying decision and to have a human understanding.

Very significant is the health activity of the Junior Red Cross. Realizing the truth of the adage of "a sound mind in a sound body," it utilizes every means towards the physical training of children. It started with the infants, one of the groups already having erected a home for infants, and others holding educational lectures throughout the country. These lectures, arranged by a special health committee, are of a practical nature. The organization also attempts to accustom young people to live hygienically and it sponsors campaigns with this purpose. Health films and health excursions conducted during the spring have also been of invaluable aid in the health program of the Junior Red Cross.

ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The training of physical training teachers in Hungary was started in 1868 by the *National Gymnastic Society*, which conducted a one-year course separately for men and women until 1923. The act of 1921 ordered the establishment of a school for

the training of teachers; for financial reasons this was carried out only in 1925, when the College of Physical Education was founded. The course of the school, extending over six semesters, includes anatomy, physiology, growth of the body, anthropometria, hygiene and first aid, physical movements, theory of physical education, theory and practice of Swedish and German gymnastics, corrective gymnastics and massage, theory and prac-



BOY SCOUT GUARDS WITH COLLAPSIBLE RUBBER BOATS READY FOR THE MARCH

tice of athletics, school games and sports, history of physical education, physical education organization, psychology, theory of education, ethics, history of Hungarian culture, fencing, marksmanship (for men only), dancing (for women only), scouting, swimming, instruction of *leventes*, seminar, German, English (elective), singing, and practice teaching.

Students are admitted upon entrance examination in a number limited by the needs of secondary schools. Candidates must have either a certificate of maturity or a normal school diploma. Prac-

tice teaching is conducted in a secondary school selected for this purpose.

The qualifying examination, conducted by a special committee, consists of a preliminary examination at the end of the second year and a professional examination at the conclusion of the course.

In order to raise the standard of the teachers and to extend



THE BOY SCOUT CAMPING GROUND—THE DANUBE FROM PASSAU TO BUDAPEST

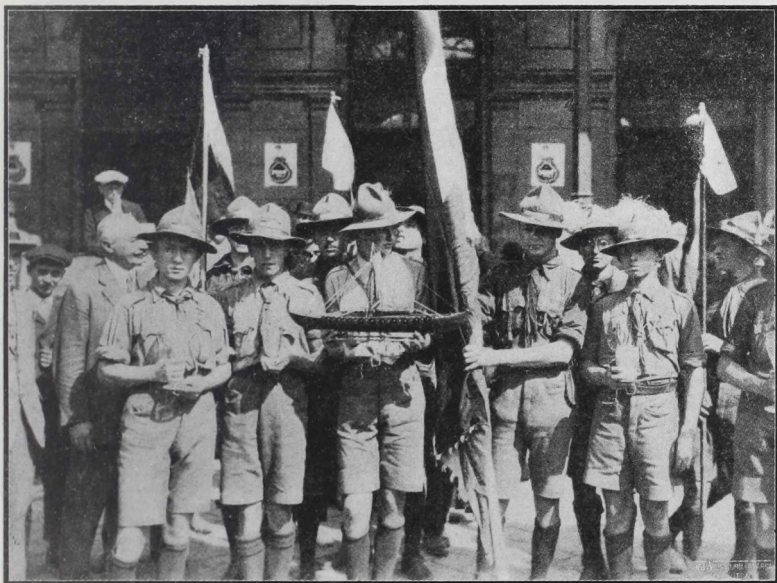
opportunities for their further education, intensive supervision is maintained. It is hoped to place physical education on a thoroughly scientific basis.

HUNGARIAN SPORT LIFE

Institutions and organizations thus far mentioned are all called upon to encourage and develop the physical and intellectual education of the youth. They prepare the youth to be athletes and lay the foundations for athletic achievements by the Hungarian nation. For the physical education of adults and the develop-

ment of athletics, however, there exist athletic clubs and athletic associations.

It is to these athletic associations that the credit must go for the splendid showing of Hungarian athletes at the various Olympiads. At the first Olympiad at Athens a Hungarian runner took second place in the 800-meter dash and another third place in the 100-meter dash, while a third man took third place in the Marathons. One of the Hungarians twice became champion in the



PRIZES WON AT THE DANISH WATER JAMBOREE IN 1927

100-meter and the 1,200-meter swims. At the Olympiad in Paris in 1900, Hungarian athletes had one world record and three important places. This was followed by another international victory when a Hungarian man won the high jumping championship. This was the first time that the Hungarian colors had achieved victory in the birthplace of sports, England. Beginning with 1903 the fencing championship became an open struggle, and yet Hungarians were victorious most frequently. In 1904 at the world competition at St. Louis Zoltán Halmay beat the world swimming champion Daniels on two occasions, while

in 1905 he won the 100-yard race in record time. At the Athenian Olympics of 1905 Hungarian swimmers were victorious. In 1908 at London Hungarian fencers won both the individual and the group championships. In 1912 at Stockholm the Hungarian sword again won the palm and Hungarian gymnasts took second place. The Olympics of 1916 were not held, and for the one

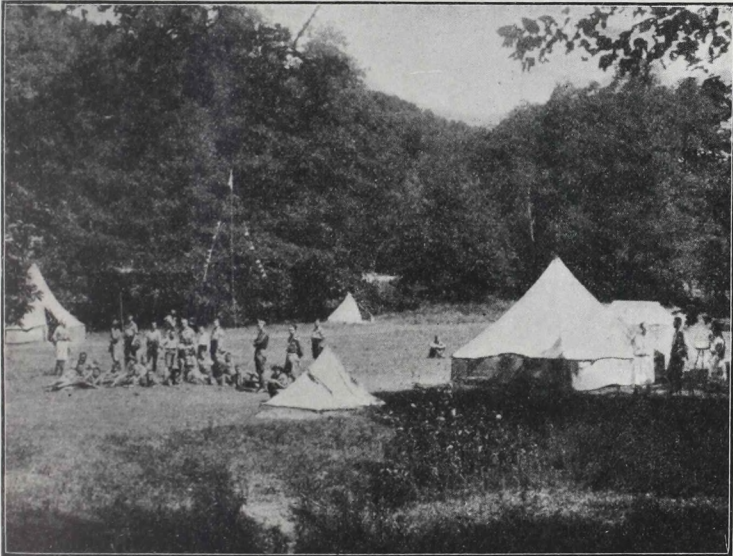


BOY SCOUT CAMP

held at Antwerp in 1920 the Central Powers did not receive an invitation; it was only in 1924 that dismembered Hungary could appear again in Paris at the eighth Olympiad. Hungarian athletes acquitted themselves most excellently here, too, for they obtained the world championship in fencing and pigeon shooting and won valuable places in the classical pentathlon, group fencing, heavyweight and lightweight wrestling, individual fencing, stiletto group fencing, backswimming, hurdling, relays, high jumping, and water polo.

Apart from victories at Olympiads, Hungary can proudly point to her successes in other great sport contests. Sons of dismembered Hungary win victories worthy of recognition not

only over her neighbouring but also over larger Western nations. She won championships in England in both 1926 and 1927. Her fencers in the same year won the European championships at Vichy and the water polo championship at Bologna. She has from the beginning participated in the International Olympic Committee and has her own Olympic committee to maintain permanent contacts and to prepare Hungarian participants in the games.



BOY SCOUT CAMP

The athletic associations, grouped together according to the various branches of athletics, do invaluable service in the development of athletic life and for the cause of physical education. At present there are seventeen such associations, each of which is represented by one member on the National Council of Physical Education.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The supervision of physical education and athletics is exercised by the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction through the

National Council of Physical Education; it seeks the advice of the council in matters relating to physical education especially in questions involving principles. The Council, however, is not



BOY SCOUT PARK AT LINDENBERG NEAR BUDAPEST
(Its Garden and Extensive Grounds Are Used in the
Training of Boy Scouts)

only an advisory body but also exercises supervisory and executive functions.

The Council, consisting of outstanding men in athletic and social life and the representatives of interested state offices, is reorganized triennially. It commands great respect and weight. Divided into four departments, it attends to the development of

sport life, the guidance of organizations, and the material needs manifested from time to time.

The financial aid of physical education is advanced by the *National Physical Education Fund*, which was started before the



BOY SCOUT HEADQUARTERS IN BUDAPEST

World War and had been completely ruined by the economic consequences of the war. It was revived in 1924, when it was legally stipulated that a certain percentage (8 per cent) of the bets at horse races should be turned over exclusively for the advancement of physical education. This sum is dispensed by the Ministry at the advice of the Council. It is to this law that the flourishing of athletic life and the erection of athletic fields

throughout the country is principally due. The Council plans to erect such fields in all the larger cities of the country.

It has been an old desire of Hungary to erect a central *National Stadium* at Budapest. This is now made necessary by the proposed Olympics at Budapest. In this National Stadium could be located not only the Council, the Hungarian Olympic Committee, College of Physical Education, and the Museum and Library of Athletics, but also the offices of the various athletic associations. It is also planned to contain suitable places for winter indoor sports, swimming, gymnastics, and lecture rooms for physical training instruction and also training quarters.

PART SEVEN

MUSEUMS AND ARCHIVES

I. THE HUNGARIAN NATIONAL MUSEUM

HISTORY

The task of the Hungarian National Museum is to collect as intensively as possible the products of Hungarian soil and mind and the relics of the past and to exhibit them for the scholarly and general public.

The Museum is a creation of the nation, owing its existence to the sacrifice of society and not to the goodwill of the rulers. Its foundations were laid by Count Francis Széchenyi (father of Stephen Széchenyi) in 1802, who presented the nation with his library, called *Hungarica* which he had been collecting since 1795. This was first called the *National Széchenyi Library* and received its present name in 1808. In accordance with the spirit of the times, this National Museum was of a general nature, although gradually the system of departmentalization prevalent in other countries was introduced. By the year 1870 there were eight departments. During the next thirty years these departments grew into independent and professionally directed institutions with increasing autonomy, so that at present they are bound together only by administrative ties. Their separation did not go into effect only for material reasons and because of the lack of personnel. Certain departments nevertheless segregated themselves; thus were the foundations laid of the *Technological Museum*, the *Museum of Industrial Arts* and the *Gallery of Historical Portraits*, which was in 1905 transformed into the *National Hungarian Museum of Fine Arts*.

This differentiation, unfortunately, was not purposive, and thus it could happen that, while the departments of natural sciences, which first reached the state of independence, still belonged to the Museum, the artistic museums were constantly in

conflict with one another and with the department of culture history. This condition was largely eliminated by the establishment of the *National Hungarian Association of Museums* in 1922, as an autonomous body composed of the great national collections.

The natural development of the Museum was obstructed from 1870 by the inadequacy of the building. Building plans were continually discussed for five decades, but no actual relief was forthcoming. As a transitional solution a considerable part of the National Museum's collections found temporary location outside of the old building. After twenty years of moving about, the *Ethnographical Collections* opened in 1927 in a new building. The *Botanical Collections* for decades has been located in a place rented from the Academy of Sciences, where, however, there is no room for exhibitions. The *Zoological Collections* since 1925 has found its location near the Museum, while its exhibition materials in 1927 were removed into a three-story building, which is the property of the Museum. The *Department of Archives* has also been forced to leave the Museum building and has obtained a modern building in which there is an opportunity for expansion.

The solution of many scientific problems await the reconstruction and modernization of the old building; particularly is it paramount to make it fire-proof. Work in this direction, however, has necessarily been arrested by the present economic and financial burdens of the government. Immediate help is expected only from the public and of vast significance in this respect are the events of recent years. Especially outstanding has been the *Count Alexander Apponyi Foundation*, established from the gift of an estate of 3,200 acres by Countess Alexander Apponyi for the development of the Museum. A proof of the general interest of the public in the National Museum is the formation of the *Society of the Friends of the National Museum*, which donates a considerable amount for the maintenance of the Museum.

The further growth of the Museum can be expected only from more intensive excavations. It is to these that the finding of gold relics of the Halstatt period and remnants of the Roman and migration periods are to be credited. The success of excavations in recent years far surpasses that of past years, and with

appropriate laws concerning relics forthcoming, a veritable boom of progress is hoped.

DEPARTMENTS

The departments and materials of the Museum are as follows:

1. *National Széchenyi Library*, divided into the departments of publications, newspapers, manuscripts, letters, and musical scores. It collects books written by Hungarian writers and all books appearing in other countries about Hungary and all books within the sphere of scholarship. Its special collections are outstanding. About 6,000,000 publications are under the care of this department. The manuscripts department contains 22,000 volumes, among them the Ehrenfeld Codex, Pray Codex of the twelfth century and thirteen Corvina Codices, and approximately 25,000 letters of literary value. The department of letters contains about one million documents, a good portion of which belongs to the private correspondence of more than 150 families.

2. *Numismatic Collections* containing medals, coins, plait-works, and such, among which are the coins of the Roman period in Hungary and of neighbouring countries.

3. *Archaeological Department*, laying particular stress upon the archaeological relics of Hungary. Its collection of ancient, bronze, copper, and gold objects and its collections from the migration period are internationally significant.

4. *Historical Department*, which is a collection of the relics of Hungarian history and culture, composed of private gifts and purchases and covering the entire period of Hungarian history.

5. *Ethnographical Collections*, composed of relics of folk life and classified into occupational and manufacturing groups, such as fishing, hunting, and weaving. Ethnographical collections from the life of other peoples constitute a separate group.

6-7. *Zoological and Botanical Collections* are comprehensive collections, paying especial attention to Hungarian fauna and flora.

8. *Mineral and Palaeontological Collections*, started by Count Francis Széchenyi, has become one of the most significant collections on the continent.

The principal publications of the Museum are: *Report Concerning the Status of the National Museum* (yearly), *Hungarian*

Book Review (quarterly), *Journal of the Ethnographical Department* (monthly), *Annales Historico-Naturales* (annual), *Archaeologia Hungarica* (quarterly), and *Hungarian Folk Arts*; also monographs and catalogues of collections and exhibitions.

The other museums of the country contain valuable material. Among these may be mentioned particularly those at Szeged and Debrecen. Many of these museums have made splendid collections of local significance, as the Museum of Szentes in the period of the migrations and the Museum of Szombathely in palaeontology.

Institutes of Scientific Research have been placed under the jurisdiction and supervision of the National Hungarian Association of Museums; among them are the *Astronomical Observatory* at Sváb Hill, *Hungarian Research Institution of Inland Waters*, *Hungarian Historical Institute* at Vienna, *Hungarian Institute* at Berlin, *Hungarian Historical Institute* at Rome, *National Center of Bibliography and Book Exchange*.

II. THE PUBLIC RECORD OFFICE

The National Record Office contains the official archives of the central authorities. Its nucleus was the Old National Archive founded in 1873 for the purpose of taking care of the more important documentary collections of the nation and of palatines and chief justices, having been authorized at the same time to embrace private documents as well. The value of its collections is considerable from the point of view of historical sciences.

In 1848 the *Hungarian Academy of Sciences* petitioned the government to establish a public institution, but this could be done only after the reconciliation of Nation and King in 1867. The institution slowly grew into its present form. In 1922 it went from the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Internal Affairs to that of Public Instruction, and with this, noteworthy changes occurred in its tasks. While hitherto its work had dealt mainly with the affairs of the nobility, from this time on it has come to lay its chief stress upon the care, arrangement, and increase of its collections. In other words, its work has become more scientific.

Many of the most valuable records of modern Hungarian history are preserved in the National Public Record Office as well

as in the archives of the Hapsburg house in Vienna. Very precious also are its documents dating from the Middle Ages.

III. THE HUNGARIAN NATIONAL MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS

HISTORY

The origin and fate of Hungarian art collections are closely connected with the political history of the country. The foundations of the first collection, which was comprehensive and famous the world over, were laid by king Mathias Hunyadi (fifteenth century). His collected treasures, however, were lost and scattered in the chaotic period following his death, so that very few of them were left for subsequent generations. Most seems to have been left of the manuscripts of his famous library known as the *Corvina*, but a great portion of these are scattered in foreign lands. The Turkish conquests and continual wars did not favor collecting, although historical documents give frequent hints of collecting as the hobby of many a nobleman and bishop. Many of these appear to have been scattered and in part may be found in the collections of the ruling Hapsburg house. With improvement of political conditions in the seventeenth century, the practice of collecting was revived, and it was in this period that the collection of the princely family of Eszterházy, destined to play so important a part later, was started. Collecting progressed very happily in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and private collections increased in numbers, many of which played a significant part in the establishment of the Museum of Fine Arts.

The first public collection was placed in the National Museum out of the gifts of the *Art Society of Pest* and enthusiasts. A great impetus was received in the gift of Pyrker the Archbishop of Eger, who presented the nation with 162 pieces of art, many of which are very precious. This made possible the establishment of a separate national art gallery, which was opened in 1846 in the building of the National Museum.

The way for the establishment of the National Museum of Fine Arts was very significantly prepared by the purchase of the Eszterházy Art Gallery on the part of the nation. This gallery, which even today constitutes the backbone of the art and graphics collections, was first formed into the National Art Gallery

with accommodations in the building of the Academy of Sciences. Works of modern artists continued to be placed in the art gallery of the National Museum.

The idea of establishing a Museum of Fine Arts was conceived in the atmosphere of the millenary celebrations. The act of 1894 makes provision for it and stipulates the union of the National Art Gallery, the art gallery of the National Museum, and the Historical Art Gallery, which had meanwhile come into existence. The new building of the Museum of Fine Arts was opened in 1906.

The National Museum of Fine Arts contains the masterpieces of the past and present of foreign and Hungarian art in such quantity and of such high standard that many a larger and richer nation is unable to equal it. In rank it follows the largest European collections of a similar nature.

COLLECTIONS OF THE MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS

Department of Paintings

1. Old paintings, 1,831 in number, were classified according to nations, schools, and periods, and placed in eighteen rooms and sixteen cabinets. The treasures of this collection of paintings are well known wherever art is seriously appreciated. Among the masterpieces are some by the Italian artists Raffael, Correggio, Luini, Boltraffio, Giorgione, Piombo, Gentile Bellini, Tiepolo, and others; the Spanish artists Greco, Ribera, Murillo, and Goya; the Flemish masters Gerard, Memling, Petrus Christus, Rubens, Van Dyck, and Jordaens; the Dutch artists Rembrandt, Vermeer van Delft, Albert Cuyp, Frans Hals, Pieter de Hooch, Teniers, the two Ruysdaels, etc.; the German artists Dürer, Altdorfer, Cranach, Hans Baldung, and Grien; and the English artists Reynolds, Hoppner, and Raeburn. Of the works of the older French artists there is to be found such a precious picture as the beautiful landscape by Claude Lorrain. Such old Hungarian masterpieces as the Meeting of Mary and Elizabeth by M.S., the portrait of Francis Rákoczy by Adam Mányoky, and the portraits of John Kupeczky are also contained in this department.

2. Modern paintings, 4,009 in number, were classified, and placed in twenty-two rooms, and four cabinets. The Hungarian group of these paintings is the greatest. Almost every significant

master is represented, and their works are on exhibition all the time. Among them are to be mentioned Victor Madarász, Bartholomew Székely, Charles Lotz, Michael Zichy, Michael Munkácsy, Ladislaus Paál, Paul M. Szinnyei, Géza Mészöly, Julius Benczur of the older school and Louis Ébner-Deák, Eugene Gyárfás, Alexander Bihary, Simon Hollósy, Charles Ferenczy, Stephen Csók, Joseph Rónai-Rippl, and Adolf Fényes. A full century of art history is reflected in the masterpieces, which at the same time proclaim the struggles and glories of the past and the promise of the future.

Recently the works of artists within the last decade have been removed to a separate building which is to be called the *New Hungarian Art Gallery*. It is to contain the works of Hungarian artists whose career falls within the twentieth century.

Modern painters of other nations are represented in a rather sporadic fashion, yet the names of famous artists are not lacking. Among them are the Germans Menzel, Leibl, Bocklin, Uhde, and Lievermann; the Austrians Waldmüller, Pettenkofen, and Markart; the English Constable; the Dutch Jacob Maris, Willem Maris, and Israëls; the Swede Zorn; the Italian Segantini and Favretto; the Spanish Zuloaga; and the French Delacroix, Corot, Diaz, Dupre, Jacque, Troyon, Daubigny, Manet, Claude Monet, Pissarro, Cézanne, Gauguin, Toulouse-Lautrec, Carrière, Boudin, etc.

Department of Statuary

1. Ancient statues and terra-cotta, about 850 pieces, exhibited in two rooms.

2. Statues from the Middle Ages and more recent times, about 400 pieces, placed in four rooms and two courts of the Museum in the order of time and topography.

3. Modern (Hungarian and others) statues, 640 in number, placed in the baroque gallery.

4. Collection of copies, 800 pieces, placed in ten rooms.

The antique collection, although not very complete, gives a good idea of the art of ancient times; it was procured by purchase mainly from the collections of the archaeologist Paul Arndt. In the collections from the Middle Ages and more recent times, Italian Renaissance sculpture is most completely represented; they were obtained largely by Charles Pulszky in connection with

the foundation of the Museum. Others were added subsequently. The modern collection faithfully reflects the history of Hungarian statuary. The great masters who may be mentioned are Stephen Ferenczy, Züllich, Engel, Kugler, Nicholas Izsó, John Fadrusz, and Alois Stróbl. Foreign masters represented are Rodin, Meunier, Maillol, Hildebrand, Mestrovic, and Minne. The copies embrace the most important masterpieces of ancient times and may be well utilized for the study of Gothic and Renaissance art.

Graphic Collection

1. Drawings, ancient and modern, about 10,000 in number.
2. Etchings, ancient and modern, about 120,000 in number, classified according to schools and artists. Two exhibitions of this material are held annually.

The ancient and modern drawings include sketches from Raphael, Fra Bartolommeo, Leonardo da Vinci, Tintoretto, Dürer, Holbein, Rembrandt, and Watteau; and the most recent collection includes the names of Menzel, Leibl, Feuerbach, Marees, Thoma, Liebermann, R. Alt, Pettenkofen, and Klimt.

HISTORICAL ART GALLERY

This gallery embraces paintings and drawings of historical significance such as portraits of historical figures, events, places, and so on, as well as statues. There are about 1,500 paintings and pieces of statuary and about 50,000 drawings. For exhibition purposes a special room is reserved in the building of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, while the graphical collection is stored away in the Museum. The material is classified according to time and topography.

THE FRANCIS HOPP MUSEUM OF EAST-ASIATIC ART

This was founded by the collector Francis Hopp, who donated his home and gardens in Budapest to the government in 1919 for the purpose of bringing together the art works from the Far East, which were located in the various museums of the country. The material is of Chinese, Japanese, Indian, and Persian origin and comes mainly from the founder, who collected it on his five trips around the world during a period of thirty years. To this were added the collections of Count Peter Vay and Count Eugene

Zichy in 1920 and 1923. The material is classified according to time, technique, and topography.

These collections of the Museum of Fine Arts have a library of 15,000 volumes and a photographic collection of about 35,000 pieces. There are separate departments dealing with the collection of facts concerning the lives and works of artists both at home and abroad. Aside from publishing a catalogue of exhibitions and collections the Museum also prepares a very richly illustrated annual, which gives an account of the growth, work, and exhibitions of the Museum.

IV. THE HUNGARIAN NATIONAL MUSEUM OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS

HISTORY

The idea arose in 1862 on the occasion of the international exhibition at London, but was not realized until ten years later when the Diet voted 50,000 florins for the purpose of purchasing articles. The articles purchased at the Viennese exhibition in 1873 constitute the foundation of the collections to which were later added a collection of Hungarian household articles, and the industrial arts collection of the *Xantus Expedition* in the Far East. The archaeological department of the National Museum also presented the Museum of Industrial Arts with many valuable articles. It was only in the last decades of the past century that systematic collecting was carried on in this field.

The Museum, until the millennial expedition, was located in temporary quarters, but in 1896 it moved into its own building and provided a place for the National College of Industrial Arts as well.

PURPOSE AND COLLECTIONS

Briefly, the purpose of the Museum of Industrial Arts is to collect works of Hungarian industrial art and preserve them for the future, supplementing them by characteristic foreign works of industrial art. With this material it aims to stimulate Hungarian talent to active work in the field of industrial arts and to provide patterns for the students of the College and craftsmen of the country. The Museum also strives to maintain and develop Hungarian tendencies and to satisfy and ennoble the aesthetic sense of the great public.

This purpose is served by its collections, which are always observable by interested individuals for the purpose of study. Furthermore, the Museum conducts lectures and displays exhibitions, and through various publications acquaints the general public with art problems.

The collections of the Museum are divided into various groups. The most complete collection is the pottery group, which gives a detailed idea of the development of pottery work from ancient to modern times. Almost complete is the pottery series of Hungary, of which perhaps the pottery of Transylvania is the most outstanding. The development of porcelains is to be observed in the articles prepared in Japan, China, Meissen, Vienna, Germany, France, Russia, and Hungary. Some of Böttger's first experiments are also included.

Also very complete is the textile collection with more than 5,000 articles. Most complete is the collection of Hungarian folk and art needlework. The collection is comprised of Coptic woven goods from the fourth to the seventh century, silk and velvet goods from the Middle Ages and the Renaissance period, goods from more recent times, embroidery, lace, costumes, gobelin tapestries, and carpets. Especially worthy of note is the tapestry depicting the birth of Christ, prepared in Brussels around 1520.

The furniture is exhibited in historical settings. There are also outstanding Hungarian and foreign articles, such as the dowry chest of Catherine Bethlen, Hungarian, German, Italian, Austrian, and Dutch cabinets and chests, French wardrobes, English chairs and sofas of the Regents period, and so on.

Wood carvings are represented by the altar pieces from 1500, the kneeling wooden statue from the Church of St. Francis at Pozsony. There are also many pieces of wood, bronze, ivory, and earthen statuary.

The art of smithery and enameling may be studied from foreign and Hungarian examples. Hungarian smithery is represented by Sebastian Hann, Michael Vay, Szillasy, and others; the most outstanding example is the Losonc pitcher from 1548. Smaller but important groups are composed of glass, enamel, leather, lead, iron, and other metal articles. Of the articles temporarily located in the Museum of Industrial Arts are the collection of the Eszterházy family, which vie with the finest collections of its kind in the museums of other lands.

The collections of the Museum are supplemented by a library, which contains a rich collection of books on industrial arts, magazines, and films.

Ever since its establishment the Museum has placed great stress upon exhibitions, which it has held from time to time since 1882. These consisted mainly of serial exhibitions of treasures contained in private collections. In this way the Museum has exerted a powerful influence upon the development of industrial art.

THE NATIONAL GEORGE RÁTH MUSEUM

The widow of the late George Ráth in 1905 presented to the government the complete collection accumulated by her husband. This was placed in a separate building, although it has remained an organic part of the Museum of Industrial Arts and is under its supervision. This museum contains about twelve hundred pieces, among them old paintings, ancient bronzes, box-tree carvings, lead medals, smithworks, porcelain dishes, furniture, jewelry, Oriental rugs, and other art works.

V. THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MUSEUMS

ORIGIN

The great national collections, such as the National Archive, the Hungarian National Museum, the National Hungarian Museum of Fine Arts, the National Hungarian Museum of Industrial Arts, and the Library of the Peter Pázmány University at Budapest have special significance, not only because they contain a tremendous treasure in their collections, but also because among their officers are some of the most outstanding men of Hungarian scholarship. The poverty of society, the almost complete lack of support for private scholarship, and the consequent stagnation of individual scientific organizations make employment with these institutions almost the only scientific positions outside of those at the universities. Hence the task of systematically regulating the personal affairs of these institutions and their employees was of primary importance.

This end might have been accomplished by two methods—either by appointing a director on the principle of a state administration, as is customary in the case of state theatres and as the

Germans did with the museums of Berlin, or by applying the principle of autonomy by establishing a governing body from the heads of collections, from experts outside of the institutions, and from connoisseurs and patrons of art. One of the primary rules of organization is to adjust it to the nature of the matters to be dealt with. Thus a theatre, demanding action and hasty decisions, can be directed profitably only by the use of the director system; but the affairs of scientific collections, demanding deeper study and broader consideration, can be treated best in a council. The heterogenous nature of the collections would also militate against the system of directorship because no one would be versed in so many branches of science. The principle of an autonomous organization was therefore chosen and put into effect with all the institutions under the jurisdiction of a Library, Archives, and Museum Council. The organization of these cultural institutions in many respects resembles that of the university; it is a system which experience proves to be more suitable for the administration of scientific institutions than a purely bureaucratic system and also provides sufficient protection against political influence and favoritism in the selection of the staff with strictly scientific responsibilities.

Making a separate institution out of the natural science, ethnographical, and archaeological collections of the National Museum and erecting separate buildings for each have constituted a paramount problem. A solution of this problem, as indicated, would have the advantage of eliminating the situation of having a heterogeneous staff and material under one administration. This would leave the building of the Museum entirely in the service of the national library. Because of the present financial state of the nation and the high cost of building, this idea must be left out of consideration at the present. It has been a happy circumstance, nevertheless, that the building of the National Archives, which had been delayed by the War, was finally completed for use in 1922. However, obstacles in the way of the outward development of the museums cause no despondency. It would be extreme onesidedness, indeed, if the progress of the institutions would be seen in buildings and purchases alone. It is, of course, necessary to obtain as many new books and periodicals as possible for the libraries or else the living libraries will become

museums of dead books. Nevertheless, in the case of the museums and archives, a broad field is open for trained and conscientious archivists and museum officials, even without new buildings and purchases. The complete analysis of the materials of collections, their systematization, cataloguing, exhibiting, and estimating the scientific value of certain articles as well as of offering the educational values represented by them to the people at large constitute a program which tends far more than external expansion to raise the level and worth of the museums. Over against the almost popular emphasis in recent years upon the financial side of the collections the law desires to endow the living, personal forces with new vitality; all its regulations are to this end.

THE COUNCIL AND ITS ORGANIZATION

The Council was vested with the rights and privileges of a separate legal body. This was done in order to create the conditions for a lively and energetic organization and to ensure the hearty support of the general public, which is difficult to arouse to the support of institutions maintained by the state. It was also a question as to whether each collection should obtain self-governing powers or all should be united under one self-governing organization. The latter plan was chosen and the basis was laid for the conservation of energy. Furthermore, an institution was created which comprises the best talent in each scientific field, and consequently the body speaks with authority and commands unquestioned respect. To increase this respect and to give the Council an opportunity to safeguard and promote its interests by laws, the Council has been granted the right to send a representative to the Upper House of Parliament along with such other institutions as the Hungarian Academy of Sciences and the universities. In spite of the union of these institutions under one legal body, the inner life of the individual institutions has been left untouched as far as their independence is concerned; this idea is especially brought out by the regulation of the law that each institution should have its own funds into which should go funds for the support of the state and the gifts of individuals. Noteworthy also is the fact that, while the Council, together with the institutions, constitutes a separate legal body,

the employees of the various institutions nevertheless remain employees of the state.

The law makes up the Council from three sources. The first group is drafted from the heads of the institutions and also the heads of the various departments of the National Museum, since these departments in reality are separate museums. These eleven members in the Council represent the knowledge and experience which can be gained only after many years of service in a library, in archives, or in a museum. The next group of members is composed of ten university professors, who are invited by the Minister for a term of five years from the professors in the Faculties of Philosophy, Theology, Law and Political Science, Medicine, and the Technical University. The professors contribute their theoretical knowledge to the membership of the Council. The general public is represented by five individuals, who through their gifts in any form have been of service to the cause and are invited by the Minister to become members for a term of five years.

Since the Council represents a heterogenous group of interests, it is broken up into smaller councils according to the separate interests. It seldom occurs that the Council is in session with its full membership of twenty-seven. This takes place only when its president and new members are nominated and when general problems are under consideration. The actual work is carried on in the smaller councils and in the executive council. Each of the smaller councils consists of five members, comprising the president, two officials of scientific institutions, and two other members. The membership of each council is chosen in conformity with the tendency and nature of the individual collections, and interlocking and duplication of members are carefully avoided.

Administrative matters are in the hands of a separate council, working under the jurisdiction of the main Council, which consists of eleven members comprising the president of the Council, the five heads of the institutions, and five other members. It is obvious that emphasis is placed primarily upon the heads of the institutions, whose long administrative service guarantees sound management. The other members are professors and connoisseurs in such a proportion that the number of the former always exceeds that of the latter.

JURISDICTION OF THE COUNCIL

The Council is vested with a clearly defined sphere of activity. It nominates its own president and its own members, who are thereupon invited by the Ministry of Public Worship and Instruction. The Council also nominates the scientific and administrative officials as well as the entire staff of the institutions. This personnel is divided into three groups: (1) the scientific, which has charge of the scientific work of the institutions and is composed of individuals of specialized training and high university education; (2) the scientific and technical assistants such as restorers, conservers, photographers, mechanics, and so on; (3) and the administrative force, in which individuals falling within this class may be employed. Selection occurs on the basis of candidacy and nomination. The Council passes upon the inefficiency and undesirability of employees.

The Council, furthermore, limits the sphere of collection for each institution in such a way that competition among them is eliminated and duplications are avoided. The Council has the right to remove articles from one institution to another in order to simplify cataloguing and to unify groups of articles. The Council is responsible for all excavations. This right is particularly significant inasmuch as in times past excavations, being conducted by individuals, were sporadic and often without gain to the nation because either articles were lost or they strayed into the museums of other countries. The Council prepares its own budget and takes it before the Minister of Public Worship and Instruction with its advisory report. The entire group of institutions in a legal way is represented by the Council, which has the right to make legal contracts. The Council also has the right to conduct national campaigns for the purpose of arousing interest in its activities and obtaining financial support. Of great help to the Council in this respect is its right to be represented in the law-making body of the country, from which it can address the nation in its campaigns. It is in this way that the National Library, Archives, and Museum Fund has been established under the management and care of the Council. Another task of the Council is to make international contacts and to conduct the international exchange of books. In all matters relating to libraries, archives, and museums it serves as an advisory body to

the Ministry. Finally, all departments must prepare reports of the work done during definite periods; this not only stimulates interest and activity, but also provides the Council with material for shaping its policies and program of work.

PART EIGHT

THEATRES

DEVELOPMENT OF THE HUNGARIAN THEATRE

Hungarian dramatic art began with mystery plays and school dramas. Professional dramatics in Hungary was German to a large extent even in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and it was only in 1791 that Ladislaus Kelemen, the first theatrical director, started the *National Hungarian Theatrical Company*, although historical data show that permission to initiate a similar organization had been granted to George Felvinezy at the end of the seventeenth century; however, nothing is known of his career. Because of the public's indifference to Hungarian actors, Kelemen's company could not stand competition with the Germans and he went on a travelling tour through the country. A similar company was formed soon afterwards at Kolozsvár, and this fared more favourably.

This company, with the support of the nobility of Transylvania, grew rapidly and in 1807 a group of them appeared at Pest, where they successfully maintained themselves. From this time on, theatrical companies sprang up one after another throughout the country.

As a result of public enthusiasm the company at Kolozsvár received in 1821 a permanent home under the title of the *National Hungarian Theatre* of Kolozsvár, which was the first permanent theatre in Hungary. It was out of the gifts of the nation that the *National Hungarian Royal Opera House* was founded in 1884 and since that time the National Theatre has devoted itself exclusively to dramatic art.

THE ROYAL HUNGARIAN OPERA HOUSE

The Royal Hungarian Opera House since its establishment cultivates all branches of the opera. It presents serious and comic opera, pantomimes, ballets, and oratorios, both from Hun-

garian and foreign authors. Its primary aim is to develop and advance Hungarian music, but it pays attention to the music of other nations. The Hungarian composers whose works are often on the program are Erkel, Goldmark, Liszt, Huber, Mihalovich, and Géza Zichy of the older masters and Hubay, Dohnányi, Mader, Szabados, Poldini, Bartók, Kodály, and Radnai of the younger generation.

Of foreign composers the following have been and are still included in the programs from time to time: Verdi, Donizetti, Bellini, Ciordano, Rossini, Leoncavallo, Puccini, and Mascagni of the Italians; Delibes, Gounod, Thomas, Bizet, Meyerbeer, Pén-tier, Debussy, and Ravel of the French; Wagner, Weber, Gluck, Mendelssohn, D'Albert, Mozart, Strauss, Kinzl, and Beethoven of the Germans.

The Opera House has exerted far-reaching influence upon Hungarian music, which has not only become strengthened but has also met with recognition in other countries. Like other metropolitan opera houses, the Royal Opera House presents all pieces with a complete force. It has 38 soloists, an orchestra of 97 members, 6 conductors, a chorus of 78 members, a dancing company of 32 members, and a technical personnel of 120 members.

The Opera House maintains permanent contacts with foreign companies, and many of the outstanding foreign singers have appeared in its productions. A good many Hungarian singers are invited to sing with foreign companies, some of them even being permanently contracted. In the past Caruso and Titta Ruffo have appeared in Budapest, while Maria Jeritzá, who is an honorary member of the Opera House, sings annually; other foreign singers appearing in Budapest are Feinhals, Journet, Ivogun, and so on. Hungarian singers known abroad are Maria Basilides, Erzsi Sándor, and Francis Székelyhidy; Hungarian singers having contracts abroad are Maria Németh, Piroška Anday, Kálmán Pataky, Gitta Alpár, and Oscar Kálmán.

The general policy of the Opera House is to maintain Hungarian along with foreign productions. This is successfully carried out, for today it commands a series of sixty operas in the Hungarian language, with Hungarian singers. From the standpoint of evaluation it has never, not even during the War, played favourites or made exceptions among the various nationalities. This is especially proved by the fact that during the

war the Opera House constantly produced foreign operas, from French and Italian composers, for example, on 252 and 308 occasions, respectively.

Significant results have been achieved by the Opera House in training the general public to love and to appreciate music. Proof of this is the fact that three-fourths of its accommodations are rented out in advance for the entire season. Upwards of 230 productions are given each season.

Worthy of special mention is the *Philharmonic Orchestra*, which is the finest in the country. It gives regular concerts during the year and achieves splendid successes, not only in Hungary but abroad as well.

THE NATIONAL THEATRE

The National Theatre is the leading art theatre of the country, aiming to advance Hungarian dramatics and dramatic literature, to cultivate the Hungarian language, and to spread general culture. In conformity with this purpose, first of all such writers are represented on its repertoire, who are typically Hungarian. Besides the Hungarian classical writers Charles Kisfaludy, Joseph Katona, Imre Madách, Ede Szigligeti, and Michael Vörösmarty, foreign classical writers, especially Shakespeare and Molière, are included in the repertoire. The Shakespearean repertoire is so complete that, while at Stratford only seven plays are produced annually, the cycle of the National Theatre embraces fourteen plays. Its Molière series is not surpassed by any theatre in Europe except by the *Comédie Française* at Paris. The National Theatre has exercised such stimulating influence upon Hungarian drama that for weeks at a time only Hungarian pieces are produced.

The National Theatre has 67 actors and actresses, a sufficient number of stage directors, managers and prompters, an orchestra of 18 members, and a technical personnel of 100. About 350 productions are given annually.

In connection with the National Theatre the state in 1924 established the *Play House*. This theatre produces plays which are not suitable for the larger stage of the National Theatre. It also serves the practical purpose of providing constant work for the large number of actors and actresses of the National Theatre. The works of such dramatists as Ibsen, Strindberg,

Shaw, and Pirandello are produced. It is under the full management of the National Theatre. A satisfactory new building is to be erected for both theatres in the near future.

OTHER THEATRES OF BUDAPEST

Theatrical art is cultivated, not only by the state, but also by the city of Budapest and private enterprises. Under the management of the community of Budapest is the *City Theatre*. More notable privately owned theatres are the *Hungarian, Comic, Royal*, and the *Operette Theatres*. The City Theatre presents operas also and does much to popularize the operatic art. The other theatres just mentioned produce modern dramas.

DRAMATIC ART IN THE PROVINCES

Dramatic art in the provinces is cultivated at present by eighteen state licensed and aided theatres. The larger towns have a lively theatrical life, often producing very competent actors. Since the Treaty of Trianon theatrical art in the towns has lost and suffered a great deal, concerning which the following data speak for themselves.

As a result of the treaty the large and flourishing cities, which had considerable musical culture and art, were lost, among them Kolozsvár, Pozsony, Kassa, Temesvár, Arad, and Nagyvárad where the permanent companies also sang operas. A great loss to the dramatic art is represented by the National Theatre of Kolozsvár. During the season of 1913-1914 there were 36 theatrical companies with 1,232 actors and actresses in Hungary and during the season of 1927-1928 there were only 18 companies with an acting force of 582. These figures speak sadly of the tremendous loss. Hungarian dramatic art, indeed, has lost 70 cities with 35 stone theatres and the fifty-year-old *National Actors Association and Pension Fund*, the organization of the town acting guilds, has been immeasurably weakened.

PART NINE

STATISTICAL DATA

KINDERGARTENS

The number of regular kindergartens in Hungary today is 929 and of nurseries, 73. This number shows an increase of 10 per cent over the average of 1920-1925. This means that kindergarten work during the latter half of the decade developed in a significant measure. The development of kindergartens, however, was still unable to keep pace with the needs of society in this respect because, if the number of children enrolled at present (109,625) is compared with the average of 1920-1925, it is seen that this number grew by 43 per cent. This large increase in the number of children entrusted to the care of kindergartens may clearly be attributed to two circumstances. The one is the spread of the realization among parents that the work going on in kindergartens is profitable from the point of view of both the physical and the intellectual development of children. The other, and perhaps the more convincing, circumstance is social; it goes back to economic causes. Inasmuch as the wretched living conditions of late years force more and more families to be dependent upon the earnings of the mother, the location of children not attending regular school must be cared for during the time that both parents spend in work away from the home. A suitable place is offered in kindergartens. It appears from this that kindergartens in Hungary will develop in the very near future not only and principally as educational institutions but chiefly as public welfare institutions.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The number of elementary schools in 1930 is 6,824. Of this number, 1,194 (17.4 per cent) are state schools, while 4,684 (68.6 per cent) are denominational; 794 are maintained by communities and the rest are supported by private interests, asso-

ciations, and estates. That 68.6 per cent of the elementary schools are in the hands of denominations is a natural corollary to the fact that education, especially the elementary branch, from the beginning belonged within the right and jurisdiction of the Roman Catholic Church and later of the Protestant denominations also. However, the influence of the state is increasingly growing. This is apparent not only in the fact that the state, especially in recent times, is erecting more and more schools, but it finds expression also in the state aid granted for the support of the schools of the denominations. The reason for the first fact is that during the last five years state schools increased by 14 per cent, while the denominational schools decreased 24 per cent. Again, about four-fifths of the denominational schools receive state aid.

If we consider how the elementary schools are divided among the various religious bodies, we find that the greatest number are supported by the Roman Catholic Church, as its 2,836 schools comprise 41.56 per cent of the total. This is a natural corollary of the historical rôle of the Catholic Church in Hungary and, on the other hand, follows from the fact that 62.8 per cent of the population is Roman Catholic. Then comes the Reformed Church with 1,101 (16.13 per cent) schools and the Lutherans with 406 (5.95 per cent), the Jews with 159 (2.33 per cent), the Greek Catholics with 36, the Greek Orthodox with 44, and the Unitarians with 2 schools.

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS	1914	1923
Ungraded schools with one teacher.....	9,978 (58%)	3,202 (49%)
Partly graded schools with two teachers.....	3,497	1,540
Partly graded schools with three teachers.....	1,220	495
Partly graded schools with four teachers.....	813	363
Partly graded schools with five teachers.....	509	210
Entirely graded schools with six or more teachers.....	912 (5%)	695 (10%)
Total.....	16,929	6,505

Almost one-half (49.5 per cent) of the elementary schools are ungraded, one teacher teaching all grades; 43.5 per cent are partly graded and, while two or more teachers are engaged in teaching, nevertheless all of them teach two or more grades in

common rooms. The remaining 7 per cent are entirely graded and each grade has its own separate teacher.

False conclusions might be drawn from the large number of ungraded schools, however, if we did not take into consideration that scarcely one-fifth (18.9 per cent) of the school children receive their instruction in these schools. More than four-fifths of the children, therefore, attend either an entirely graded or a partly graded school. The number of ungraded schools is augmented by the schools of rural districts and small villages inasmuch as the consolidation of schools, so successful in the United States, cannot as yet be initiated in Hungary, partly for economic reasons and partly for lack of satisfactory means of communication.

Elementary schools in Hungary with few exceptions are co-educational (93.8 per cent). Two and nine-tenths per cent of the total schools enrol only boys and 3.3 per cent, only girls.

The number of elementary teachers in 1929-1930 was 18,990, of whom 10,761 were men and 8,229 were women. A teaching force of 4,829 is at work in the state schools and one of 14,161 in the non-state schools.

There is an enrolment of 917,392 pupils. In 1929-1930 these were divided according to grades as follows: I. 220,528; II. 207,546; III. 193,783; IV. 173,970; V. 79,399; VI. 40,309; VII. 1,385; and VIII. 472. We notice a great drop in the number of pupils in the fifth grade. This is explained by the fact that transfer to secondary schools takes place after the fourth grade. On the other hand, many reach the age-limit for compulsory attendance in the fourth or fifth grade on account of retardation and drop out of school. The seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school have been introduced only in very few schools and hence the number of scholars enrolled in them is insignificant as yet.

Of the pupils, 202,800, or 22 per cent, attend state schools; 714,592, or 70 per cent, attend non-state schools. Comparing these numbers with the number of schools, it becomes clear that 171 pupils fall to each of the state schools and 130 to each of the non-state schools. It would be too early, however, to draw any conclusions about the overcrowded condition of state schools. We shall obtain a proper picture of the situation if we compare the number of pupils with that of the teachers. It then becomes clear that, on an average, there are 42 pupils to one teacher in

the state schools and 50 pupils to a teacher in the non-state schools. These figures are further explained by the fact that state schools on the whole have the lowest number of ungraded schools (409), while this average rises much higher among the denominational, community, or other types of schools.

Sixty-nine per cent of the elementary pupils are Roman Catholic, 19.9 per cent Reformed, 6.6 per cent Lutheran, 2.5 per cent Greek Catholic, and 1.1 per cent Jewish, the rest belonging to other denominations. If we compare these figures with the percentages of the population, we find that the Catholic children in school (63.9 per cent) exceed this number, the Lutherans (6.2 per cent) and Greek Catholics (2.2 per cent) slightly rise above it, the Reformed (21 per cent) approach it, and the Jewish (5.9 per cent) fall far below it.

MIDDLE SCHOOLS

The progress of the middle schools is illustrated by the following statistics:

Old Hungary

SCHOOL YEAR	URBAN SCHOOL			ENROLMENT		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1880-1881	57	53	110	4,573	5,367	9,940
1900-1901	113	186	299	14,373	26,250	40,623
1917-1918	210	340	550	52,891	84,895	137,786

Dismembered Hungary

SCHOOL YEAR	URBAN SCHOOL			ENROLMENT		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1918-1919	94	159	253	31,188	48,863	80,051
1921-1922	135	193	328	34,134	44,521	78,655

The number of middle schools in 1929-1930 was 353. Of this number, 112 were boys' schools, 163 girls' schools, and 78 co-educational schools. Thirty-eight and five-tenths per cent, or 136, of the middle schools are supported by the state. In the case of middle schools a new class of supporters come into prominence and these are the communities. While the denominations support only 98 schools (27.7 per cent), communities have 102 schools, or 28.9 per cent. Of the denominations the Roman Cath-

olics have the highest number, 74, which is followed by the Reformed Church, 13, and the Jews who in comparison with their population average, with their eight middle schools show decided progress as over against their elementary schools.

The total number of middle school teachers is 4,287 and of pupils 65,635, of whom 13,931 are boys and 11,051 are girls. The state schools take care of 24,982 pupils, the community schools 25,312 pupils, and the denominational schools altogether take care of 14,043. The rest attend either association or private schools.

On a national scale there are 29 pupils to each class and 15 to each teacher. If we compare the number of pupils with the average of 1920-1925, or 83,653, we shall discover that during the five years the number of pupils decreased by 21.5 per cent, explained by the decrease of births during the War.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

The Normal Schools total 48, of which 20 are for men and 28 for women. Their number for the average of 1920-1925 shows an upward trend. The state maintains 13 and the rest are denominational. Of the denominations the Roman Catholics support the most with 25 schools, the Reformed having 6, Lutherans 3, and the Jews 1. Teachers in Normal Schools for men number 256 and for women 337.

The students number 7,987, of whom 2,354 obtain their training in state and 4,116 in Roman Catholic institutions; 51.5 per cent of the coming teaching generation thus will come out of the schools of the Catholic Church. The mother tongue of the students is distributed as follows: 98.5 per cent Hungarian, 1.2 per cent German, and 0.3 per cent Slav. It is interesting to note the occupational fields in which the parents of these students are engaged. Eleven and three-tenths per cent of the students come from the families of teachers, 22.5 per cent have parents engaged in other intellectual fields, and 14.4 per cent have parents who are on pension or in private enterprise and in a large part, therefore, also belong to the intellectual class; 11.5 per cent of the students come from the industrial or commercial class; and the rest are divided among the agricultural, factory, and military classes.

If we view the number of students enrolled in the respective grades (I. 1996; II. 1895; III. 1644; IV. 1288; and V. 1165), we

discover a gradual decrease, due to a process of strict selection on the part of the institutions, considering the fact that transfer from normal schools to secondary schools or technical schools, that is, a voluntary departure of the candidate, is a very rare occurrence in Hungary.

KINDERGARTEN TEACHER TRAINING

At present four institutions are engaged in the training of kindergarten teachers, of which two are state and two Roman Catholic schools. The enrolled students number 260, of whom a large majority (185) receive training in the state institutions. Students show an increase of 10 per cent over the record of 1920-1925.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

In 1870 there were 146 Gymnasiums and 24 Real schools in the country; in 1900 there were 165 Gymnasiums and 32 Real schools; and in 1917 there were 186 Gymnasiums and 34 Real schools, to which 39 secondary schools for girls are to be added. In 1892 there were 13 state, 128 denominational, and 9 miscellaneous types of Gymnasium in the country; in 1917 this changed to 50 state, 124 denominational, and 12 miscellaneous Gymnasiums. Students also increased in numbers rapidly. In 1900 the number of students in the Gymnasiums was 48,353 and in Real schools 9,699; in 1917 this rose to 67,190 in the former and 12,662 in the latter. Maturity examinations were taken in 1890 only by 2,173 students and in 1917 this number rose to 6,009.

Secondary schools total 156, of which 120 are boys' schools (76.9 per cent) and 36 girls' schools (23.1 per cent). Thirty-seven and one-tenth per cent, or 58 of the secondary schools, are maintained by the state; 51.9 per cent or 81 of the schools by the denominations or denominational funds; 5.7 per cent or 9 schools by communities; and 5.3 per cent or 8 schools by private individuals or associations. Of the denominations the Roman Catholic leads with 37 schools, to which may also be added the 7 Royal Catholic schools maintained from Catholic educational funds; the Reformed Church has 23, the Lutheran 10, and the Jews 4 schools.

The boys' schools are divided according to types as follows: 28 Gymnasiums, 69 Realgymnasiums, and 23 Real schools. It is interesting to note that only two of the Gymnasiums are state

schools, while the rest are denominational, which shows that the pillars of classical training in Hungary are the denominations. Over against this the denominations do not maintain a single Real school; of these five-sixths are state and one-sixth community institutions. This same fact is observable also among the schools for girls. Among the 13 Gymnasiums for girls only one is a state institution, while 8 out of 22 Lyceums for girls are maintained by the state. The denominations lay a great deal of stress upon the education of girls, which may be deduced from the fact that, while only 53.3 per cent of the boys' schools are in the hands of the denominations, 61.1 per cent of the schools for girls are of a denominational character. The difference is even more striking when we subtract the number of the Royal Catholic schools which in practice are state institutions; in this case the secondary schools for boys in the hands of denominations fall to 47.5 per cent.

The teachers of secondary schools number 3,362, of whom 2,615 teach in boys' schools and 747 in girls' schools. According to school types 628 teach in Gymnasiums, 1,466 in Realgymnasiums, and 521 in Real schools. One thousand four hundred seventeen, or 42.1 per cent of the teachers are state, 789 or 23.4 per cent, including the teachers of the Royal Catholic institutions, Roman Catholic, 450 or 13.3 per cent Reformed, 183 or 5.4 per cent Lutheran, and 78 or 2.3 per cent Jewish. The rest receive their salaries from communities, associations, or private individuals.

The total number of students enrolled in 1929-1930 was 59,244, of whom 57.4 per cent were Roman Catholic, 17.5 per cent Reformed, 7.2 per cent Lutheran, and 16.6 per cent Jewish. In comparison with the population averages the high percentage of the Jewish element attending secondary schools is unusual, for over against only .66 per cent of the Roman Catholic population, 61 per cent of the Reformed, and 86 per cent of the Lutherans, 2.01 per cent of the Jews are enrolled in secondary schools.

If we look over the percentage distribution of students among the various grades (I. 17.7 per cent; II. 13.82 per cent; III. 12.46 per cent; IV. 12.89 per cent; V. 12.19 per cent; VI. 11.64 per cent; VII. 10.46 per cent; and VIII. 8.91 per cent), the strong selective tendency of the Hungarian secondary schools becomes manifest. A large number of the students not suitable for sec-

ondary schools drop out at the end of the first year, which is also shown by the percentages, and then their number decreases evenly from year to year. This selection is not concluded even with the eighth grade, for the number of students who successfully pass their maturity examination (4,208) comprises 7.10 per cent of the total number of students.

The results of maturity examinations supply data for determining the success of instruction. Of the students successfully passing maturity examinations in July, 1929, 21.4 per cent received a rating of "excellent," 32.6 per cent "good," and 4.6 per cent "satisfactory."

If we compare the number of students with the existing number of classes (1,446), it becomes clear that each class on a national scale is comprised of 40 students. And again, if we compare the number of students with the number of the teachers, the national scale shows up rather well, inasmuch as only 17 students fall to one teacher. Concerning the vocations of the parents, it may be said that 33.9 per cent belong to families of the intellectual class, 37.8 per cent to the industrial and commercial classes, and only 14.1 per cent come from the agricultural class. The remaining 14.2 per cent have families of miscellaneous vocational standing.

From the point of view of the mother tongue the students of the secondary schools, with a slight exception (2 per cent), are all Hungarian.

COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

The total number of commercial schools is 50, of which 39 are for boys, and 18 for girls. Most of the commercial schools (24) are maintained by communities: these are followed by the state with 12, the various denominations with 8, and finally associations or private individuals with 6 schools.

The students total 11,067, of whom 7,490 are boys and 3,127 girls. Fifty-seven and eight-tenths per cent or 6,397 of the students are Roman Catholic, 14 per cent or 1,553 Reformed, 4.9 per cent or 551 Lutheran, and 21.6 per cent or 2,386 Jewish, the rest belonging to other denominations. The rôle of the Jews, with an average number of students three times their population average, is a very striking feature of the commercial schools.

Ninety-eight and two-tenths per cent of commercial students are Hungarian. Thirty-six and six-tenths per cent of students aiming for commercial careers come from industrial or commercial families, 27.5 per cent from families engaged in intellectual work, and 7.4 per cent are the children of farmers, the rest coming from various vocational fields. It is interesting to note that 77.44 per cent of the students enrolling in the first year of the commercial schools come from middle schools and only 15.65 per cent from secondary schools; the rest are repeaters. With this disappears the notion that the commercial schools are the dregs of secondary schools and that students who are not suitable for secondary schools transfer to commercial schools in masses. This notion is also refuted by the fact that 87.11 per cent of the students enrolled in the second year of the commercial schools completed their first year in their own school and only 5.05 per cent are transfers from another institution, but a large number even of these transfer not from secondary schools but from other commercial schools.

Commercial schools in 1929 had a teaching force of 1,010, of whom 183 were women. Comparing the number of students with that of teachers, it becomes clear that 11 students fell to each teacher. The average number of students for each class was 36. In this matter, the commercial schools are thus better off than secondary schools. Selection in commercial schools, however, by far falls short of the scale of secondary schools. The percentage distribution of students according to grades was as follows: I. 28.4 per cent; II. 28.8 per cent; III. 23.4 per cent; and IV. 19.4 per cent. With regard to the success of instruction we find information in the results of the maturity examinations of 1929. Six and twenty-one one-hundredths per cent of the students received a grading of "excellent," 19.92 per cent "good," 57.86 per cent "satisfactory," and 16.01 per cent of the students either failed or withdrew.

UNIVERSITIES AND OTHER HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

Hungary at present has four universities, one faculty of economic science, and one technical university. To these may be added the following various higher institutions of learning: 17 theological seminaries, 3 law academies, 5 economic schools (1 School of Veterinary Science, 1 School of Mines and Forestry,

and 3 Agricultural Academies), and 9 other higher institutions (1 Training School for Teachers of Middle Schools, 1 Academy of Fine Arts, 1 Military Academy and 1 College for Physical Education). The number of university professors after the establishment of the new universities increased considerably. In 1924-1925 there were 233 ordinary, 9 extraordinary, 11 substitute, 294 private professors, and 27 lecturers. The total teaching staff was 574, to which may be added 247 adjuncts and assistants.

According to the faculties these numbers were divided as follows: faculties of theology, 97 ordinary, 4 extraordinary, 7 substitute, 4 private professors; faculties of law and political science, 68 ordinary, 2 extraordinary, 7 substitute, 146 private docents, 187 adjuncts and assistants; faculty of philosophy and natural sciences, 90 ordinary, 6 extraordinary, 3 substitute, 99 private professors, 14 lecturers, 58 adjuncts and assistants.

The universities have now 737 professors and the other institutions 425. Students enrolled in the institutions number 16,043; of these 74.3 per cent or 11,916 belong to the universities. Fifty-nine and seven-tenths or 7,121 of the university students are Roman Catholic, 19.6 per cent or 2,323 are Reformed, 6.2 per cent or 735 are Lutherans, and 9.2 per cent or 1,101 are Jewish. Only 124 are of a foreign mother tongue; the foreign students (87) are predominantly German.

The number of new students admissible during the school year 1926-1927, according to the law of *numerus clausus*, was as follows:

FACULTY	BUDAPEST	SZEGED	PÉCS	DEBRECEN
Theology.....	50	...	50	50
Law and Political Science.....	500	200	200	200
Medicine.....	400*	150†	150	150
Philosophy, Philosophy and History	350*	100	100	100
Mathematics and Natural Sciences.	...	100†
Economics.....	550

Schools of Law: Eger, Kecskemet, and Miskolc—40 each.

* Plus 100 Pharmacy students.

† Plus 75 Pharmacy students.

The number of students attending the various universities is as follows:

BUDAPEST

UNIVERSITIES AND FACULTIES	1919-1920
Roman Catholic Theology	87
Law and Political Science	909
Medicine	2,787
Philosophy	873
Pharmacy	116
	<hr/>
	4,772
Francis Joseph University	
Law and Political Science	128
Medicine
Philosophy	29
Mathematical and Natural Sciences	46
Pharmacy	1
	<hr/>
	204
Stephen Tisza University	
Reformed Theology	74
Law and Political Science	399
Medicine
Philosophy	138
	<hr/>
	611
Elizabeth University	
Lutheran Theology
Law and Political Science
Medicine	21
Philosophy
	<hr/>
	21

Eighty-seven and seven-tenths per cent of the students are men and 12.3 per cent women. Most women are to be found in the Faculty of Philosophy and then respectively in the Faculties of Medicine, Economics, Pharmacy, Law and Political Science, and Theological Science (Protestant).

Up to 1900 the number of women university students increased slowly, there being only 17 and 16 in the Faculties of Medicine and Philosophy, respectively. In 1917 there already are 331 women medical students, 369 Philosophy students, 2 students studying Pharmacy and 487 special students, a total of 1,189. In 1925, despite the tremendous decrease in the size of the country, there were 1,165 women university students. Of this number 559 were enrolled in the Faculty of Philosophy, representing about half (48.4 per cent) of the total number of students in this faculty.

According to the vocation of their parents, 35.1 per cent come from the intellectual class, 33.7 per cent from industrial and com-

mercial families, 14.2 per cent from farmers, and 17 per cent from miscellaneous groups. The number of Doctors' degrees granted in 1928-1929 according to the branches were as follows: Theology 11, Canon Law 12, Political Science 305, Law 506, Medicine 643, Philosophy 96, Pharmacy 9, Economics 73, and Technical Science 16. Teachers' diplomas for secondary schools were granted to 170; 121 received diplomas in economics, 452 in engineering, and 117 in pharmacy.

One thousand eight hundred seven Hungarian students pursued university studies in universities and higher institutions abroad; of these 461 were in Austria, 313 in Germany, 376 in Czechoslovakia, 236 in France, 225 in Italy, 134 in Switzerland, and 62 in the United States.

CHIEF EDUCATIONAL ITEMS OF THE STATE BUDGET FOR 1929-1930

Approximately the following sums were devoted to the maintenance of the various institutions:

Kindergartens	\$ 401,131
Elementary Schools	2,984,274
Normal Schools	361,810
Commercial Schools	116,170
City Schools	1,223,191
Secondary Schools	2,073,633
Universities	3,606,189

Amounts spent by non-state schools for educational purposes cannot be statistically ascertained.



APPENDIX

THE HUNGARIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

SCHOOL YEAR					AGE		
17	University, Technical University, Faculty of Economic Science, Academy of Law, Schools of Theology, Veterinary College, Academies of Agriculture, College of Forestry and Mining, Academy of Music, School of Dramatics, School of Fine Arts, and College of Physical Education.				23		
16					22		
15					21		
14					20		
13					19		
12	<div>Continuation School, Lower Vocational Schools: Industrial and Commercial Schools, Independent Agricultural School, Agricultural Schools, Winter Schools, School of Landscape - gardening, Training School for Vinedressers, School for Forest Guards, and School for Training of Milk Producers.</div>	Secondary Vocational Schools: Agricultural, Industrial, Commercial Schools, Normal Schools, and Schools for Training of Kindergarten Teachers.	Gymnasium. Gymnasium for Girls	Realgymnasium. Lyceum for Girls.	Real School. College for Girls.	18	
11						17	
10						16	
9						15	
8						14	
7		Middle School					13
6							12
5							11
4							10
3							9
2	Elementary School.				8		
1					7		
	Kindergarten. Age 3-6.						

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